

THE
CRITICAL REVIEW.

For JULY, 1788.

*Cyclopædia: or, An Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences.
By E. Chambers, F. R. S. (Concluded, from vol. lxx. p. 11.)*

IF our account of these valuable volumes should appear too extensive, it must be considered that they form an æra in scientific knowledge, at which, for a time, we rest, and of which the future labours are only a continuation. They give a momentary respite to look around on arts and sciences; to see what has been done; to survey the eager labourers, collecting in the harvest, with a view of adding their sheaves to the future stock. The prospect is entertaining and interesting; nor can it be surveyed with so much advantage by any one as by a Reviewer, who joins in every toil; and though he sometimes spends the harvest-day in the humbler task of glean- ing, occasionally mixes with the reapers, and carries his own share into the barn. On this occasion we have ourselves looked round on the accessions daily made to the arts and sciences, and compared them with the accounts which are given in these volumes. Though the editor has seized the state of knowledge at the moment when he wrote, much is since accumulated; more is accumulating. In arts and manufactures, the most rapid advances are daily made; and we have still the satisfaction of seeing our own country without a rival. Agriculture daily assumes a more scientific form; and cautious experiment attends the delusive promises of the projector: so that the remedy is offered almost at the first period of the disease. Aerial chemistry has extended the bounds of the science, and almost given it another form, while the philosopher is now more than usually ready to assist the artist. Natural history rears her standard in every desert clime, and the trophies of her conquests are daily brought home. Astronomy, philosophy, and mathematics join their aid, and give us a clearer knowledge of things, which we scarcely could expect to ascertain, even by conjecture. In this rapid state of improvement is almost every art, almost every branch of philosophy: and, while these reflections furnish ample apology for the editor, if any thing re-

mains imperfect, so they shew the necessity of fixing occasionally our stands, from whence we may survey what has been done on the one hand, while we receive, on the other, information of what is now doing. To ascertain the present state of knowledge, and to point out the improvements daily expected, or already made, was the design that we originally entertained, and hoped to have pursued, in our review of this edition of the Cyclopædia. The attempt was a bold one; but the execution would have been singularly useful. When we looked nearer on the subject, we found that, if it had been pursued, each article would have been of itself a volume. It is time, however, to resume our account.

Our guide, whose nature we explained in a former Number, and to whom we acknowledge ourselves greatly indebted, next leads us to a branch, whose ramifications are numerous, and loaded with novelties. We now speak of Mechanics: the investigation of the force of the mechanical powers, as well as the properties of each kind, are very greatly improved. The articles of MOTION, ACCELERATION, ELASTICITY, FORCE, and PERCUSSION, are much enlarged. The construction of MILLS is illustrated by a table: the article of the *wheels of carriages* contains much new matter: and the advantages of bent timber are illustrated with great clearness. We regret only, that plates of many curious and useful machines are not added.

To Metallurgy the additions are as numerous as the names of metals, and they are also important. In smelting the improvements are numerous, and the best methods are generally pointed out. Delaval's experiments on colours produced by metals are abridged; but these we have already had an opportunity of examining. In the article of Metal, however, the author's observations on the similarity of the vegetable and mineral acids, if, indeed, he speaks his own sentiments, are not, in appearance, well founded.

In Metaphysics we have particularly marked with approbation the articles of ABSTRACTION, ASSOCIATION of *Ideas*, IDENTITY *personal*, arguments for and against the immateriality of the SOUL, and the controversy on the object of NECESSITY. The editor's good sense and accuracy always enable him to give a good summary; in many instances, a masterly view of a dispute. In the account of Dreams too much space is allowed to the fanciful prognostics of physicians, on that subject, and too little to Hartley and Locke. If ever dreams are rationally explained, it will be probably on the system of Hartley.

In

In Navigation we find the most useful parts, amply detailed. The history of the Compass is new, and a description of different compasses, particularly the most useful kind of the Mariner's Compass, invented by Knight, is subjoined. To the articles of LOG, the method of finding the LONGITUDE, the making and working OBSERVATIONS, and that of SAILING, there are numerous additions. Some other parts of this science are much enlarged.

The Animal Œconomy is considered and explained at some length, under the various titles which comprehend its different subjects. We have particularly noticed the different systems of digestion, generation, and respiration, as greatly enlarged; the former process has been elucidated by Spallanzani, whose experiments on the solvent power of the gastric juice were not known, we believe, in England, at the period of the publication of that volume. Dr. Rees's system is that of Dr. Cullen.

Optics furnishes great novelty, from the invention of the telescope to the opera-glass and spectacles, from the division of the rays by a prism to the rainbow. Whatever relates to Astronomy is executed with great care. What relates to Light, its aberration, reflexivity and refrangibility, is connected very advantageously. On the Transmutation of colours, many curious facts are brought together, which we should transcribe, but that they are not new.

The whole system of Ornithology is much improved: indeed it was very imperfect in the former edition: on a careful comparison, we scarcely perceive one article, in its original state. On the Migration of birds, there is much useful matter, in a new form. The author, with some other distinguished philosophers, supposes that birds commonly migrate to some latitude of the southern hemisphere, answerable to that from which they removed, and goes on to describe the manner of their passage.

* The manner of the birds of passage journeying to their southern abode may vary, according to the different structure of their bodies, and their power of supporting themselves in the air. Those birds with short wings, such as the redstart, blackcap, &c. though they are incapable of such long flights as the swallow, or of flying with so much celerity, yet may pass to less distant places, and by slower movements. Swallows and cuckows may perform their passage in a very short time; but there is for them no necessity for speed, since every day's passage affords them an increase of warmth, and a continuance of food.

* Providence, which has guided the defenceless animals in many other instances to the safest methods of performing their necessary works, may have instructed many of these birds which

have shorter passages to make, or places to stop at by the way, to fly only in the night, that they may be secure from the birds of prey; and Mr. Catesby gives a proof that some species do so, from his own observation; for lying on the deck of a sloop on the north side of Cuba, himself and the whole company heard, successively, for three nights, flights of rice-birds, which are easily distinguished from all other birds by their notes, and which were passing over their heads northerly; which is their direct way from Cuba, and the southern continent of America, from whence they got to Carolina, annually, about the time that rice begins to ripen, and from whence they return southward again, when it is gathered, and they are become fat.

That this is the case also with some species of swallows, has been proved beyond contradiction by M. Adanson, *Hist. de Senegal*, p. 67. We often observe them collected in innumerable flocks on churches, on rocks, and on trees, previous to their departure hence; and Mr. Collinson proves their return here, perhaps, in equal numbers, by two curious relations of undoubted credit; the one communicated to him by Mr. Wright, master of a ship, and the other by the late sir Charles Wager; who both described to the same purpose what happened to each of them in their voyages. "Returning home, says sir Charles, in the spring of the year, as I came into soundings in our channel, a great flock of swallows came and settled upon my rigging; every rope was covered; they hung on one another like a swarm of bees; the decks and carving were filled with them. They seemed almost famished and spent, and were only feathers and bones; but being recruited with a night's rest took their flight in the morning." This apparent fatigue proves that they must have had a long journey, considering the amazing swiftness of these birds; so that in all probability they had crossed the Atlantic ocean, and were returning from the shores of Senegal, or other parts of Africa.

The short-winged birds are supposed little qualified for long flights, particularly the quail, which is a bird never seen long together on the wing, or making any long flights; its not doing this frequently is, however, no proof that it is not able to do it; nor does the structure of its body at all bespeak its inability; and Bellonius affirms, that he saw them in great flights passing over, and repassing, the Mediterranean sea, at the very seasons when they leave us, and they return again. The same instinct that directs these birds to depart to distant countries, doubtless also directs them to the shortest way, and sends them to the narrowest cuts, not the wider seas, to cross.

Among the birds of passage, we have some also which come to us in the autumn, at the time when the summer birds are leaving us; and go from us again in the spring at the times when these return: these, however, are only four kinds; the fieldfare, the redwing, the woodcock, and the snipe; and of these the two last often continue with us through the summer.

summer, and breed; so that the two first seem the only kinds that certainly leave us at the approach of spring, retiring to more northern parts of the continent, where they live the summer, and breed; and, at the return of winter, are driven southerly from those frigid climes, in search of food, which there the ice and snow must deprive them of. There are many others also, particularly of the duck or wading kind, that breed and make their summer abode in the desolate fenny parts of our island; and when the severity of our winters deprives them of their food, necessity forces them to retire toward the sea in numerous flights; where they find water unfrozen, and where they remain till the return of summer; but those cannot properly be called birds of passage.

‘It seems pretty evident from the whole, that the summer birds of passage leave us only in search of a more warm climate, and a greater plenty of food, both which advantages they procure to themselves by their alternate change of climate; but the *migration* of the winter birds of passage is not so easily accounted for, since there is no such apparent necessity of their leaving us, either on the score of food, or climate. The place of the summer retirement of these birds is Sweden, and some other countries in that latitude; but as they would find those places too cold and destitute of provision, were they to hasten immediately to them on their departure from us, they journey along gradually, and prolong their passage through the more moderate countries of Germany and Poland; by which means they do not arrive at their northern habitations, where they are to pass their summer, and where they breed, till the severity of the cold is so far abated as to render it pleasing to them, and there is proper food there for them; and when they revisit us the following winter, their journey is performed in the same leisurely manner.

‘Sweden, and the other countries whence they come to us, seem the proper home of these birds; since there they were bred; and the journey they take to us being only for a warmer climate, and a plenty of food, it is no wonder that, when these benefits are to be expected again in their native place, they return to it.

‘The principal food of these birds, while with us, is the fruit of the white-thorn, or haws, which hang on our hedges, in winter, in prodigious plenty; but where they breed, and seem to live most at ease, as in Sweden, &c. there are no haws, nor indeed in many of the countries through which they journey in their way; so that it is evident they change their food in their passage. And upon the whole it appears, that Providence has created birds, &c. with constitutions and inclinations adapted to their different degrees of heat and cold; which, to them, are most agreeable, and to which they will travel from places which to other animals might seem more agreeable: by this means no part of the globe is without its inhabitants.’

The remarks on the Song of Birds is an accurate compilation, from Mr. Daines Barrington's memoir on that subject.

Natural Philosophy must form a very copious and comprehensive subject. In this branch much is new, and much is done well. Earthquakes are explained very correctly from the latest systems. HEAT is examined at some length; but our editor goes no lower than the system of Crawford. The extremes of heat in different latitudes are correctly pointed out, and the different systems of animal heat, with the experiments made for the purpose of determining the power of animals to generate heat and cold, are correctly detailed. M. de Luc's late work could not, from the period of its publication, be of service. The different systems of Evaporation are also well explained; but the late discoveries have given a new colour to the whole. The different authors were not aware of the union of heat, as a principle with water in a state of vapour. Under the article of MOISTURE, we have an account of a new hygrometer, invented by Mr. Coventry, of Southwark. We shall extract some account of it.

‘ Since the printing of the article HYGROMETER, Mr. Coventry of Southwark, has furnished the editor with an account of his new hygrometer, the construction of which is as follows: take two sheets of fine tissue paper, such as is used by hatters and watch-makers, and sometimes called lawn-paper, each sheet of which generally weighs about twenty-seven grains. Let the moisture be thoroughly evaporated by the fire, without scorching the paper; till after repeated trials it is brought to its driest state: in this state cut each sheet till it weighs exactly twenty-five grains. These sheets, thus prepared, should be kept in a box or drawer with a quantity of the same paper designed for use; and they will always serve for determining the proper weight of any quantity of paper for other hygrometers. This paper hung in any place, and kept free from dust, and weighed with a nice pair of scales will serve to exhibit the *moisture* of the air, by its increase of weight above fifty grains.

‘ The advantages of this hygrometer are the following: as it is made of the thinnest substance that can be procured, it is the soonest affected with dryness or *moisture*, and exhibits immediately the first change of the weather: it is not acted upon by heat or cold, or any other cause, as most other instruments of this kind are: it has one datum from which to reckon; viz. the dry extreme, whence all other degrees of *moisture* may be nicely estimated. All hygrometers of this sort will act nearly alike, as thermometers or barometers; and may be reduced to a regular standard. Mr. Coventry found by this hygrometer, that in clear frosty weather, the air contains a very considerable degree of *moisture*: for on Jan. 27, 1776, in the morning, being a very hard frost, the thermometer in the house 24° , and in the open air 17° , the hygrometer stood at ten grains, i. e. at the division 100: and on the next morning, when a thaw came on, it stood

at 96; which shews that there is as much *moisture* in the air during the frost, as when we perceive it dissolved in a thaw. He adds, that it is pleasing to observe the constant motion of this hygrometer: for even in constant and settled weather, it is always in motion, from moist towards dry, from about eight in the morning till about four in the afternoon; and from dry to moist, from about 4 P. M. to about 8 A. M. In hot gloomy weather, the hygrometer is mostly found to advance with speed towards moist, and shews that the air at such times retains a great quantity of *moisture*: and this always forebodes heavy showers. For curious experiments some of these hygrometers are made to traverse the whole scale of divisions for every grain of *moisture* that is imbibed by the papers.'

The different kinds of **HYGROMETER** occur to us under the title of **PNEUMATICS**, and they are described with the various instruments designed to measure the different qualities of the air. The descriptions are generally improved, and the latest inventions properly pointed out. The last hygrometer mentioned, however, is M. de Luc's ivory one.

The articles under the head of **THEOLOGY** are written with great care; and if there are not so many additions as on some other subjects, the additions are very important. The proofs of the being of a God are detailed with great force and great accuracy; the arguments for and against the **SLEEP** of the **SOUL** deserve also much attention. The article relating to the Soul itself is a very good one, and contains an able reply to the materialism of Dr. Priestley. We think, that on a subject so hackneyed, the opinion of one man, however able he may be, is not of sufficient consequence to attract the attention of a national Encyclopedist. Perhaps, if the matter was soberly and seriously discussed, it would be found, that we have scarcely more exact ideas of matter than of spirit; and that, by excluding an additional principle, we increase our difficulties instead of lessening them. The article of **MYSTERY** is also much enlarged; and the additions are chiefly taken from Warburton and Leland.

There are some curious remarks under the article of **WRITING**: some of which we shall beg leave to transcribe.

'To whom we are indebted for this admirable and useful discovery does not appear. There seems reason to conclude, from the books which Moses has written, that, among the Jews, and probably among the Egyptians, letters had been invented prior to his age. The universal tradition among the ancients is, that they were first imported into Greece by Cadmus the Phœnician, who, according to the common system of chronology, was contemporary with Joshua: but according to sir Isaac Newton's system, contemporary with king David. As the Phœnicians are

not known to have been the inventors of any art or science, though, by means of their extensive commerce, they propagated the discoveries made by other nations, the most probable and natural account of the origin of alphabetical characters is, that they took rise in Egypt, the first civilized kingdom of which we have any authentic accounts, and the great source of art and polity among the ancients. In that country, the favourite study of hieroglyphical characters had directed much attention to the art of *writing*. Their hieroglyphics are known to have been intermixed with abbreviated symbols, and arbitrary marks; whence at last they caught the idea of contriving marks not for things merely, but for sounds. Accordingly, Plato (in *Phædro*) expressly attributes the invention of letters to Theuth or Thoth, the Egyptian, who is supposed to have been the Hermes, or Mercury, of the Greeks. Cadmus himself, though he passed from Phœnicia to Greece, as several of the ancients have affirmed, was originally of Thebes in Egypt. Most probably Moses carried with him the Egyptian letters into the land of Canaan; and there being adopted by the Phœnicians, who inhabited part of that country, they were transmitted into Greece.

It is curious to observe, that the letters, which we use at this day, can be traced back to the alphabet of Cadmus. The Roman alphabet, which obtains with us and most of the European nations, is plainly formed on the Greek, with a few variations. And all learned men observe, that the Greek characters, especially according to the manner in which they are formed in the oldest inscriptions, have a remarkable conformity with the Hebrew or Samaritan characters, which, it is agreed, are the same with the Phœnician, or the alphabet of Cadmus. If the Greek characters are inverted from left to right, according to the Phœnician and Hebrew manner of *writing*, they will appear to be nearly the same. Beside the conformity of figure, the names or denominations of the letters, alpha, beta, gamma, &c. and the order in which they are arranged, in all the several alphabets, Phœnician, Hebrew, Greek, and Roman, agree so much as to amount to a demonstration that they were all originally derived from the same source. The letters were, at first, written from the right hand to the left: and this manner of *writing* obtained among the Assyrians, Phœnicians, Arabians, and Hebrews: and from some very old inscriptions, it appears to have obtained also among the Greeks. Afterwards the Greeks adopted the method of *writing* their lines alternately from the left to the right, called *boustrophedon*. At length, however, the motion from the left hand to the right being found more natural and commodious, the practice of *writing* in this direction, prevailed throughout all the countries of Europe.

Under the title of *ZOOLOGY* we have the various distributions of animals, according to different authors, and particularly the arrangement of Linnæus. Dr. Rees is very attentive to the different systems and the various advantages which each

each affords. On the subject of quadrupeds he gives the preference to Pennant. On these points we have had various opportunities of enlarging. One of the most curious branches, however, of this subject is, the instinct of brutes, and various systems have been given for explaining it. As we have not had an opportunity of giving any account of M. Reimar's system, we shall select our author's very comprehensive view of it.

The late ingenious Hermann Samuel Reimar, professor of philosophy at Hamburgh, has enumerated and exposed these and other opinions, with regard to the *instinct* of animals, in his *Observations Physiques, &c.* published in two vols. 12mo. at Amsterdam and Paris, 1770: and, defining *instinct*, in the most comprehensive sense of the word, to be every natural inclination, accompanied with a power, in animals, to perform certain actions, divides *instincts* into three heads. The first, which he calls *mechanical instincts*, belong to the body, considered as an organized substance, and are exercised blindly and independently of the will of the animal. Such are those which produce the motion of the heart and lungs, the contraction and dilatation of the pupil, digestion, &c. This class of *instincts* is possessed in common both by men and brutes, and in some measure even by vegetables. The second class comprehends those which he terms *representative instincts*, which consist partly in the power of perceiving external objects by their present impression on the senses, and partly in the faculty of rendering the ideas of these objects present to the mind by the powers of imagination, or of memory, in a lax sense of the word. These are common to men and other animals, excepting that brutes possess only the faculty of imagination in common with us, and not that of memory, in the strict and proper sense of the word. Indeed this author endeavours to prove, that the knowledge of brutes does not merely differ in degree from that of man, but that it is of a kind entirely different from it; and that they are incapable both of memory and reasoning: the faculty of imagination serving to give them a confused idea of events that are past, by the view, or other impressions of objects that are present. The third and principal class of *instincts* is that which comprehends all those which M. Reimar calls *spontaneous*. This species of *instinct* is not attended with any power of reflection, determining the animal to decide freely between two different modes of action present to his imagination; nor is it merely corporeal or mechanical. It is put into action by the natural and primitive principle of self-love, implanted in all animated beings; or by a love of pleasure and aversion to pain, producing a voluntary inclination to perform certain actions which tend to their well being and preservation. To the performance of these actions they are particularly prompted by their present sensations, by imagination supplying the place of memory, and by other causes. The wonderful effects produced by these instinctive

tive appetites, are farther to be attribute^d to the exquisite mechanism in their bodily conformation, particularly in the structure of the various organs with which they execute their operations, and to the superior perfection and acuteness of their external senses, by which they are quickly and distinctly informed of those qualities of objects which most materially concern them. In order to account for the more curious and surprising operations of brute animals, M. Reimar adds two other principles, viz. 1st. an internal distinct perception of the precise power and proper use of their various bodily organs, together with an innate knowledge of the qualities of those objects around them in which they are interested; and 2dly, certain innate and determinate powers and inclinations, impressed by the Author of Nature, *à priori*, on the soul itself; by which they are arbitrarily, and without their own knowledge or consciousness directed and irresistibly impelled to the performance of these various operations which they execute with such unremitting industry and art. These determinate forces, which constitute the principal part of M. Reimar's system, are no where so visible and distinguishable as in that numerous set of *instincts* which he classes under the title of the *industrious instincts* of animals.'

Though we have pursued our editor through the various articles of the Index, we have not mentioned every general division in which improvements occur: those which afforded nothing very particular to induce us to enlarge on them, we have passed over, but it would have been unjust to the editor not to mention them. We shall, therefore, enumerate the general titles. These are CHARITABLE *institutions*, CONICS, DIALLING, DISTILLING, DRAMATIC *History* and *Exhibitions*, FALCONRY, FARRIERY, FENCING, FISHING, FISHERY, and FORTIFICATION. The articles of Fossils and Fowling are abridged: much useless matter is rejected; but some new observations are, we find, added; so that, though the bulk is less, the value is greater. Many remarks, not unworthy the notice of the practical gardener, occur under the articles relating to GARDENING: those of GENEALOGY, GEOMETRY, GRAMMAR, HERALDRY, HOROLOGY, HUNTING, MAGIC and DIVINATION, MENAGE, MATHEMATICS, MEASURING, MEDICINE, and MENSURATION, are greatly improved. METEOROLOGY, though it contains much new matter, cannot of course, comprehend the late improvements; to MINERALOGY much undoubtedly is now to be added. MIDWIFERY, the MILITARY ART, MUSIC, MYTHOLOGY, PAINTING, PERSPECTIVE, PHARMACY, PHONICS, POETRY, POLITICAL ARITHMETIC, and POLITICS, which have not received proportional increase from the fostering hand of science, are much improved, and pretty accurately detailed. PYROTECHNY, RHETORIC, SCULPTURE, SEA LANGUAGE, SERPENTS, SHELLS, SHIPS, SPHERICS, SURGERY,

SURGERY, SURVEYING, TRIGONOMETRY, WEIGHTS, and WORMS, have all, we perceive, reaped advantage from the editor's attention.

As we have enlarged so much on particular articles, and in enumerating the novelties which occur on almost every subject, it may appear useless to give a general character of the work; and particularly so, since the public favour has distinguished it by uncommon encouragement. The whole, as we have said, forms a vast and useful body of information, in correct and perspicuous language. Yet in this collection somewhat, of course, will be wrong. Little errors we have had occasion to hint at; and we may observe, that too much attention is paid to old and exploded theories; too little discrimination is made between essential and trifling facts; too much space is allowed to works and men of a particular class, and to subjects not generally considered as interesting. The merit of the work is, however, too considerable to be tarnished by those errors,

— quos incuria fudit

Vel humana parum caveat natura.

It is, on the whole, extremely valuable, and will be a lasting monument of the abilities, the information, and the sagacious industry of the editor.

It ought not also to be passed over in silence, that the publishers have contributed their share to the beauty of this Dictionary, by the paper, the print, and the plates. The paper and the print appear with remarkable lustre by the side of those Numbers of the new French Encyclopædia, which are now publishing, with the united assistance of the wits, the poets, and the philosophers of that kingdom*. The plates in the Cyclopædia before us are numerous, and in general valuable. Those which relate to Botany and Natural History are remarkably useful to the student: those on Mechanics are so well executed, that we wish only for more representations of the different machines which are described. They form a striking contrast to the unmeaning figures of the last edition of the French work. The plate of Anatomy *was*, in many respects, an indifferent one, awkward, incorrect, and crowded: but we are happy to find, that this imperfection has been perceived by the editor; and as we could not impute the omission to a want of liberality, it is, as we expected, well supplied by four new plates, which render the subject sufficiently clear for a general reader.

Having found so much to praise, it would be illiberal, on our side, to dismiss this very useful and extensive work without a sincere and a hearty recommendation.

* It is expected that this work will be completed in 1790: it will be very voluminous and expensive.

Principles of Military Movements, chiefly applied to Infantry.
By Colonel David Dundas. 4to. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Cadell.

WHETHER the annual establishment of the British army be considered only as nominal, while in reality it is a permanent one; or whether, according to juster and more constitutional views, we are to look on our army as frequently renewed, a connected system of education, which will lead its different parts to act together on one principle, will be obvious. A system of this kind it is colonel Dundas's object to point out; and he takes the general principles from the Prussian tactique, contrasting it with the irregularity and confusion of the British practice. Every system of tactics (for we would avoid the affected Gallicism of tactique), must have some great and striking object; and it would be as absurd to adopt the condensed Prussian column, in the woods of Germany, as it would be to follow the skirmishing Indian war, when opposed to prince Ferdinand, at the head of disciplined German brigades. We are old enough to remember, that Braddock's defeat was attributed, with some justice, to his following a regular established system; and a slight reflection will convince us, that the regularity which our author contends for, may be found, in peculiar instances, to be dangerous, and sometimes fatal. It is the duty, we think, of a general, to combine, from all systems, the mode of warfare most applicable to his situation, and the various exigencies which it may require: he must not be the slave of one; his soldiers, if well disciplined, we mean, if they are apt, ready, and obedient, will soon be able to execute his intentions. It was not, without some little displeasure, that we heard extended lines and open files magnified into systematical errors of importance. The soldier who marches to-day at a review in this manner, may to-morrow form a compact column in action; and the mode of his marching at one time will no more influence what he may be directed to do at another, than his dinner of yesterday may affect that of any future time. In reality, colonel Dundas's idea is a good one. If we have a small army only, it should be one capable of the most rapid increase, with effect. It should be the embryo, calculated to acquire, as soon as possible, the bulk and the strength of mature age; and if he had not pursued this idea too far, we should not have hinted the least dislike.

In the substance of this work our author has two guides, whom he follows very closely, general Von Saldern, who formed the Magdeburg infantry, a circumstance which, however, he does not mention; and Guibert, on the higher branches

branches of military discipline and manœuvres. General Saldern's work has been lately translated by Mr. Landmann, and was noticed with great respect, in our LXIII^d volume, p. 366. The elementary part, which was the great object of the first author, is very closely followed by colonel Dundas, with a very few exceptions. He differs, for instance, from general Saldern, in the manner of a soldier's being taught to march.

'He will never be taught to march well, if he is not instructed to stretch his ham, but without stiffening his knee; and to point his toe, keeping it near the ground, so that the person before him cannot see his shoe soles either when he raises or puts down his feet.'

Landmann says, to make him march 'with a stiff knee,' p. 38; and Saldern, in the original before us, says, mit stiefem knie. He himself states some circumstances in which he differs from Guibert.

We shall not examine our author's introductory part very minutely, as we have given some general account of its object. There is one feature which distinguishes every part of it. Close compacted German lines are proper; and the lighter more desultory movements improper. The French, he tells us, have reformed their cavalry: so have we; but colonel Dundas does not mention it, because he probably still likes a heavy body of horse, whose compacted force shall carry all before it; or because his introduction was written and printed before the late regulations. Let us, however, select a few of his remarks.

'Whether the establishment of our battalion light companies, is an advantageous mode, may admit of some doubt. When assembled in corps, they ought to act as other battalions do; but while attached to their several regiments, they had best be considered as out of the line, and placed in the rear of the battalion as a reserve, ready to fall forth, and execute the part allotted them.

'There seems no reason why the light infantry should not conform to the same principles of order and movement, as the battalion. The frequent dispersion and peculiarities which they are taught, should be considered as occasional exceptions. By their present open order, and independent ideas, they are under very little controul of their officers; and their practice seems founded on a supposition of the spirit and exertion of each individual, more than on the real feelings by which the multitude are actuated. Were our battalions, also, more accustomed to act in line, and with cannon, they would see the impropriety of every instant scattering and throwing forward the light infantry, whose situation must often prevent the proper use of the artillery.

‘Our present prevailing modes, are certainly not calculated either to attack or repulse a determined enemy, but only to annoy a timid and irregular one—they are not general, but were first adopted in local situations that may not soon recur. There is great danger in an irregular system, becoming the established one of a British army; and the most fatal consequences may one day ensue, if we do not return to a due sense of the necessity of solidity, effort, and mutual dependance, which it is the great business of discipline to inculcate and regulate.’

That the late American war has given a different system to our commanders, must necessarily be obvious; and, from this cause, the light infantry have been placed in a more important view, and a more unconnected situation. Our author’s remark, that, if our battalions had cannon with them, they would, of course, act differently, will apply to the loose system of infantry in America. From the small proportion of cavalry and artillery, it was not necessary to act otherwise; from the local situation, it would have been disadvantageous. Whatever may have been the merits of our commanders in America, this was not certainly an error. Our present system was, therefore, learned in the school of experience, and adapted to the circumstances of the war: whether it should be altered, must depend on the practice of the next enemy we have to contend with; and, on this subject, even colonel Dundas cannot give us any information.

‘The method almost universally adopted in our infantry, and in ours only, of forming two deep, and at open files, deserves the most serious consideration. It was not produced by the experience of the German war, but by that of the first American. The desultory service there carried on by small bodies of men, and the then deficiency of movement, and want of flexibility in our solid battalions, made us run into the other extreme, and first introduced it as proper for that country; review appearance continued it; and the new military modes, brought into fashion by the light infantry, have tended to make it the prevalent order of the service. Many respectable officers are satisfied of its propriety; but it seems necessary to consider its operations and consequences, when extended to larger bodies than the single battalion.’

Colonel Dundas states what are said to be the advantages of this method, and comments upon them. He concludes:

‘On the whole, therefore, the old ideas of firmness, compactness, and mutual support, should be restored and held sacred; the formation in three ranks and at close files but without crowding, should be adhered to, as the fundamental order, on which the battalion should at all times form and march; and the

the other, in two ranks and at open files, should be regarded only as an occasional exception that may be made from it, where an extended and covered front is to be occupied, or where an irregular enemy, who deals only in fire, is to be opposed.'

It may be perhaps allowed, that the fundamental order should be sufficiently solid, to oppose the best disciplined and scientific enemy; or, in other words, that our soldiers should be exercised often on the compact system. Yet we may presume, that those very respectable officers who are satisfied with the propriety of a less solid order, do it on the principles which we have mentioned; on an extensive view of the relative situation of Great Britain. They perhaps think it better adapted to the distant countries, and combined expeditions, in which she is more likely to be engaged than in Europe.

A steady well disciplined soldier may soon adapt either mode; and a little consideration will, we think, point out the impolicy of a servile imitation of any system. The inventor, unless you suppose him inactive and inattentive, will always rise superior to the imitator; and a Prussian army of disciplined veterans will oppose with success any body only trained on its principles, though the firmest sinews of the army should be experienced soldiers. The first idea that would probably strike a great general, if opposed to the Prussians, would not be to march in their steps, and to oppose them on their own system; but to mark its defects, and to ground his manœuvres on *them*. This was the conduct of the emperor, or more properly of the emperor's generals, in the last war between the two powers: in this way, the king of Prussia was baffled in the height of his renown, the perfection of his discipline, and the vigour of his science. Count Laudohn did not copy the Prussian movements; but avoided the Prussian army in the field, posted himself in inaccessible camps, and almost surrounded it, by a cautious series of movements, while the main army continued obstinately on the watch, to take advantage of any offensive manœuvre. In a subsequent interview with the emperor, when the king of Prussia was seated at dinner, count Laudohn was sitting opposite to him, Come here, says the king, M. le Comte, sit next me; for I am not at ease when I see you on the opposite side.

We shall add nothing farther on our author's tactics, in which, we think, he has dealt a little unfairly with the British army, by his accusations of its irregularity and want of system. After having established his own ideas of the proper system which must be almost infinitely varied, according to the difference of ground, &c. he gives a pleasing illustration of many of his remarks, by a detail of the famous Prussian re-views

views of 1785, which were so much celebrated throughout Europe. He also gives the best and most scientific account that we have seen of prince Ferdinand's campaigns, and illustrates it by a plan of the marches previous to the battle of Fellinhausen. It appears, that prince Ferdinand was opposed to a timid enemy, in the prince de Soubise, and to an ardent one in Broglie; that he reaped as much advantage from the pusillanimity of the one as from the confidence of the other. The orders of Broglie and prince Ferdinand, in 1760, are compared; but we find a general sameness and regularity: they seem to have been dictated by a secretary, in the military routine, and discover nothing of the former boldness of the one, or the rather confidence of the other. Broglie's disobedience, and too hasty ardour, seem to have been the great hinges on which the event of the battle of Fellinhausen turned. The whole work is illustrated by numerous and accurate plates. His concluding observations, or rather his eulogium on prince Ferdinand, we shall extract, as it may be separated with less disadvantage than any other part of the work.

‘ In this manner ended a war, glorious and honourable for prince Ferdinand, and for the troops whom he commanded. The whole body of allies served with distinguished reputation, and each successive campaign added fresh lustre to the British arms. With an army much inferior in numbers, but whose confidence in their general was unbounded; he successfully withstood for six years the fullest exertions of the French monarchy, and gained many signal victories. At the beginning of the campaign, he sometimes was obliged to give way to the strength and ardour of his enemies; but before the end, he never failed to resume the offensive, and deprive them of their short-lived advantage. The difficulties that attend the conduct of an allied army, vanished before his superior reputation; and the singular instance of one without party, jealousy, or discontent, was seen under his command. His arrangements for the supply of his troops, were just and well executed; his activity was unremitting; his local knowledge and combinations wonderful; his firmness and presence of mind were often tried; and the quick remedies which he applied to unforeseen misfortunes, or critical situations, marked his ready decision, which was always conspicuous. From his well-weighed purposes, no common difficulties ever diverted him, for he could depend on their being surmounted by the zeal of his generals, and the bravery and attachment of his troops. *The theatre of war was new, and his system of operations was each year different*; when he advanced, it was with vigour and effect; when he retired, he kept his enemy in respect; his defensive positions were most skilfully chosen, and of such a nature, that he was ever in a situation to take advantage of the opportunities which the moment

ment might present. He did not always oppose the enemy in front; but skilfully covering and securing his own communications, he placed himself on theirs in such a manner, that when the country seemed most exposed and inviting them to take possession, they durst not advance for fear of having their retreat or their supplies cut off. There was no position from which his superior local knowledge and perseverance when on the offensive, did not enable him to turn and dislodge the enemy. The constant changes that took place from the defensive to the offensive war, and from the open to the woody and mountainous country, gave a full scope and display to the singular talents of this great man, who so successfully directed the several corps of an army, acting in concert from Saxony to the frontiers of Holland; and whose movements were frequently combined across the whole of Germany, with those of the king of Prussia his great master and instructor. All the actions he achieved, may be traced up to his own superior skill and conduct; and in the rank of generals, prince Ferdinand must always be considered as one of the most distinguished.

This work, we think, may be highly useful to military students, though soldiers of reading and experience have long had in their hands the systems from which it is in a great degree taken. Colonel Dundas, however, seems to have carefully considered the subject, and adds something from himself: the king of Prussia concludes a small book, which lies before us, called *Military Instructions*, with the following words: 'The little experience' (we translate them for the sake of being more generally understood), 'the little experience which I have acquired in the art of war, has taught me that it is impossible to understand it completely; and that, in studying it with attention, something new may always be found.'—M. Guibert expressed the same opinion of this veteran warrior. 'I dare assert, says he, that the king of Prussia has not exhausted all the combinations which this art admits of; and that, in the higher branches of tactics, on the part which chiefly relates to marches, great improvements still remain to be made.' What the king modestly allowed he did not chuse to be told; and it was reported, that after publishing this book, which exemplifies the Prussian system, in its fullest extent, M. Guibert went to Berlin, and expected great attention from the monarch, to whom he was introduced. Frederick received him graciously, and highly praised a play that he had formerly written: of his military work he said nothing.

The Works of the late William Stark, M. D. Revised and published from his Original Manuscripts. By James Carmichael Smyth, M. D. F. R. S. 4to. 10s. 6d. in Boards. Johnson.

THE dispute, occasioned by Dr. Reid's quotation of some parts of Dr. Stark's manuscripts, has led Dr. Smyth to publish his remains. We look at them with mingled pity and regret; with pity at the author's early death; with regret, that, with talents well adapted for observation, with industry the most unremitting, the neglect of the world should have sunk so deeply in his mind, as to impair his constitution, and put the final period to his labours. Dr. Stark did not know that his industry and his knowledge were the surest bars to his success: that they would excite jealousy and apprehension in the medical people with whom he was connected, while they were little understood by the world in general. Such is the uncertainty of medical reputation; so much are people combined against their best interests, that if learning and genius succeed, it is more owing to accident than to the causes that should influence success. To finish the account of the author, we shall only add, that he died of a nervous fever. The constitution, weakened by his experiments, and probably by uneasiness and disappointment, could not long oppose the disease. He died on the fifth day*; and the symptoms, with the appearances on dissection, shewed only that the solids were considerably weakened.

The works are anatomical or practical, and diætical. The first part contains relations of the symptoms of diseases, with the appearances on dissection, and the medicines best adapted to their cure. The cases are arranged according to the parts of the body affected; and each class contains an account of the cases and dissection of those who died, and were permitted to be opened; of the cases of those who recovered, or were not dissected; and general remarks on the cure.

Of miscellaneous facts we can give no proper abridgment. The cases are related in bold perspicuous language, where the author's comprehensive mind seizes a general idea, and communicates it with corresponding force. The symptoms are not numerous; and there are no minutenesses, which little minds love to dwell on: yet we have sometimes thought, that both the cases and dissections were hurried over too rapidly, and there was not sufficient care to keep some peculiar ones sufficiently distinct, to make the proper impression on the mind. While the medicines employed are not mentioned with the cases, it is not easy to say what were the effects of the disease, and what must be attributed to the method of cure. The different classes are, 1st.

* It was the fifth after the real attack; but he seems to have been ill three days before.

diseases of the stomach, intestines, and chylopoetic viscera; 2dly, diseases of the chest; 3dly. of the fluids; 4thly. of the head, nerves, and muscles.

From the first class, we shall select the following singular appearance.

'The common gall-duct, shut up by a gall-stone, and the hepatic-duct opening into the duodenum.—In the body of a man who died of a fever, without having any symptom of jaundice, the extremity of the ductus choledochus was quite shut up by a large gall-stone, which protruded into the duodenum; the gall-bladder was greatly contracted, empty of gall, and covered all over with a cellular substance; the ductus hepaticus adhered to the duodenum, and opened into it about an inch below the pylorus: over the gall-bladder, the edge of the liver was a little rounded. This viscus was in other respects sound.'

In the account of costiveness, there is an instance of a painter, who had no stool for three months. In purgings, our author observes, that opium produces only a temporary effect: to be truly efficacious, it must be joined with the vitrum ceratum antimonii, columbo-root, or very small doses of ipecacuanha. The last combination is chiefly useful in gelatinous purgings.

In diseases of the thorax, there are many important cases of hydrothorax, not sufficiently discriminated: there are some instances of diseases of the heart, which may afford useful lessons; but the part which is truly original, and of most consequence, is the description of vomicae. These have been already published, in part, in Dr. Reid's work, and more fully, in the Medical Communications. Different coughs are well discriminated; but they seem to be in general phthical ones, or tending to phthisis. The cases of asthma are rather those of hydrothorax. Remedies are, in our author's opinion, of little use; he recommends bleeding strongly; but there are better means of taking away the phlogistic diathesis; and, when we consider the dangers of using it improperly, the mischiefs which have arisen from its indiscriminate employment in diseases of the chest, a cautious practitioner will always hesitate about diminishing that strength which he cannot restore. The most rapid sinkings, in hectic cases, have been those in which bleeding has been employed. Blisters Dr. Stark strongly recommends, and of their use we have spoken in our review of Dr. Ryan's Work. Setons too we believe, with our author, to be useful; but of these, we cannot speak from sufficient experience. They are painful remedies, and it is seldom that patients can be persuaded to admit of them.

Diseases of the fluids are chiefly those, in which they are effused, in consequence of putrefaction or tenuity from different

causes. Several cases of dropfy are also inserted. The practice affords nothing worthy of particular remark. We shall transcribe an uncommon, and it may be an useful case.

'A young woman having, on the day her menses began to flow, taken imprudently, whilst hot, a draught of cold water, the discharge immediately stopped; her legs inflamed and swelled; and she was seized with shiverings, followed by fever, and pains all over her body; after two or three weeks, the fits of shivering, succeeded by fever, frequently returned again, and at those times the inflammation of the legs increased. In about a year, the whole of the lower extremities had attained an enormous size; but the swelling was not now attended with inflammation; on the contrary, the limbs were cold and hard: it differed also from the cedema, as it did not retain the impresson of the finger; nor was sensibly increased towards evening. In every other respect, excepting a diminution of the catamenia, the patient seemed to be in perfect health. Notwithstanding the use of various medicines, and the application of caustics and blisters, which last, by the bye, occasioned no discharge, her limbs remained in the state above described for almost two years and a half: she then began to rub on her legs the mild mercurial ointment, gradually encreasing the quantity to half a drachm, afterwards to one drachm every night; she lived low, and the limbs were kept in a horizontal posture. In three weeks, the swelling having subsided, the legs were soft and flaccid; and, in three months, the skin was so loose, that it seemed probable, that what had formerly distended it, was now mostly absorbed. Her mouth was but little affected; her bowels not in the least: she sweated much, and made water in considerable quantity.'

In the diseases of the head, we have several instances of effusion of lymph, between the membranes of the brain; a case which, in its symptoms, progress, and cure, differs from hydrocephalus internus. The instances, in this volume, followed fever and violent delirium. Besides partial suppurations of the membranes, and enlargement of the veins of the pia mater, there is a case in which no morbid appearance was found in the brain, after the symptoms of a true sanguine apoplexy. There was probably an effusion at the upper part of the spinal marrow. The nervous symptoms were those of irritation: the muscles of the superior extremities were unusually affected, and the heart itself seemed at last paralytic. The cases of recovery, or where the body was not examined after death, were those of loss of sense, loss of motion, or constant involuntary motion. Dr. Stark seems to attribute the painters colic to the turpentine which they use; but brandy, or even spirits of wine, joined with spirits of turpentine, have been given with success for the cure. It is the remedy, however, of itinerant quacks or ignorant

rant workmen. In the chapter of remedies, the advantage arising from musk, in the case of constant involuntary motion, is most remarkable. This part of our author's work concludes with some remarks on the advantages to be derived from dissections, to which he seems to think that the greatest improvements in medicine are to be in future owing.

The dietetical part of the work consists of numerous experiments: we read them with concern, as we considered every succeeding fact as weighing down, with its accumulated effects, the author's constitution. But, since the sacrifice is made, let us draw what instruction we can from the victim. The account begins with different facts, relating to diet, and observations on digestion, from the different substances by accident evacuated, at various periods, after eating. The facts are important; but numerous and more extensive observations have been since made, on digestion, by Spalanzani, Stevens, &c. The experiments began with bread and water: the quantity of bread was varied from twenty to thirty-eight ounces in a day; the water from one to two quarts. The weight of his body gradually decreased, when he used thirty ounces. He evacuated a little wind. Less than two pints of liquid in a day brought on inconvenient sensations, as thirst and a pain in the stomach. The greatest quantity that he could eat in a day was forty-six ounces; the greatest quantity, at once, without uneasiness, twenty ounces.

When he kept to bread, water, and sugar regularly, he gained in weight; when he was irregular, he lost it. But the sugar brought on all the symptoms of sea-scurvy. In one forenoon he eat twenty ounces of sugar, and frequently from eight to ten. The gums were not only swelled and spongy, but blood was effused under the skin. Sugar is undoubtedly nutritious, though it renders the blood thinner. With our author it did not prove flatulent.

The next series of experiments were made with bread, water, and oil of olives. This series of experiments was, interrupted by a fever of the putrid kind, probably from the former sugar diet. The oil, however, seemed to be nutritious. When from three to four pints of milk were daily added to the bread and water, he gained in weight, and became costive. The constitution seemed to demand all the nourishment, and acquired strength with it. Roasted goose added to the bread and water seemed to give force also to the constitution, though he did not greatly gain in weight. Fat beef employed instead of roasted goose, seemed to strengthen the body; one-third only was fat. On repeating the diet of sugar, when in perfect health, he found no affection of the gums; it must indeed be remembered, that this experiment lasted only five days, and the former one seventeen; that is, the sugar was

continued so long: the scorbutic symptoms appeared the fifteenth day; yet, from this second experiment, our author is inclined to attribute these symptoms to the former diet of bread and water. Mr. Orred told Mr. Hewson, and it is mentioned before in the facts on diet, that sailors driven to distress, and obliged to live on sugar, died of scurvy. When the experiment was repeated with boiled beef, our author succeeded very well. Beef is still most congenial to an Englishman's constitution. Beef, lean, without the gravy, did not support full health, or an active mind. The stomach did not seem to be satisfied; with the gravy, it succeeded better, but an animal diet produced dreams. When the oil of the fat or suet was added to the gravy and the meat, the sleep was quieter, and he was more drowsy; but in almost all the former experiments he lost some weight.

In the tenth experiment he gained weight on the whole. His diet was then of flour, oil of suet, water, and salt. Six ounces of the oil to twenty ounces of flour, disagreed; the oil was not assimilated, though, when the proportion of oil was less it was digested exceedingly well. At last, Dr. Stark left off all the oil; and he lost weight; but he became healthy, and hungry soon after meals. Less water would suffice. Without suet, he could eat more, and the diet was more diuretic; but much bile seemed necessary to assimilate the fat. This diet was, therefore, not sufficiently nutrient; and the increase of urine was generally very nearly in proportion to the increase of weight.

Though oil of olives and of suet seemed nearly similar in their effects, yet fresh butter, substituted instead of suet, produced uneasiness in the stomach, wind and pain in the bowels, with diarrhœa. Yolks of eggs did not properly combine the oil of suet with water: the diet disagreed, and ran off unassimilated. The oil of butter, tried comparatively with butter, succeeded much better; and indeed every experiment with butter seemed to confirm what we formerly observed from different views, that it requires great efforts, in the stomach, for its assimilation, and increases the paroxysms of fevers. The oil of marrow, obtained by gentle heat and pressure, was tried; and its effects were found not to be so inconvenient as those of suet, in a large proportion. In a smaller one, it was borne with ease and freedom. It seemed, however, to bring on a little of the scorbutic appearances; and animal oils, though they appear to nourish and increase the weight of the body, do not probably keep the fluids in their proper state. On returning to the animal diet, he had more dreams, but more strength. The fat of stewed beef, with the jelly, bread, water, and salt, agreed very well, and gave

gave strength as well as spirits. Bread, lean beef, with the infusion of tea sweetened, produced no very particular effects; and, when changed for the fat of beef, the appearances were the same. Nothing very remarkable occurred, when the diet was of bread, the lean of roasted veal, and water. The fat of bacon ham seemed purgative; the lean had very similar effects; but the most remarkable appearances occurred on using honey. This substance proved very diuretic; and when heated was scarcely less so: it agreed very well; but as a saccharine substance, began to produce ulcers on the cheek. When the looseness which the honey occasioned also was considerable, he began to eat *Cheshire cheese*: but the fever, which put a period to his existence, came on in the midst of this experiment; and we do not, with certainty, know how much was owing to the one, and how much to the other.

Experiments of this kind must be subject to great variety, from causes which cannot be exactly ascertained. The constitution, the former modes of living, and the time of the year, will produce some difference in the results, though it is impossible to take them into the account. In our abridged narrative many must of course have been omitted, which the author has stated. It will perhaps be safer to take only the more general results; and to be guided by the old maxim, which is supposed to preclude excess, *sanis omnia sana*. In diseases, the prudent physician may derive some assistance from these experiments: they shew us that sweets, though nourishing, are, after a long continuance, injurious: they point out that honey, as a diætic remedy, may be occasionally very useful; that oils, within proper limits, are salutary.

One great circumstance, which should be attended to during experiments of this kind, is the degree and quantity of perspirable matter discharged. Dr. Stark made some statical experiments, with great precision, and the result is included in this volume. The hourly waste of the body was nearly equal both day and night, and was about three ounces ten drams: the particulars furnish little subject of remark. When the diet was varied, butter seemed very perspirable, and suet more so: the perspiration in the night was proportional to that of the day, that is, when the daily perspiration was greatest, the nocturnal was also greatest. The perspiration was very considerable when no oil was employed. Heated honey was more perspirable than honey without preparation; though, in this matter, there is some doubt, as he walked much during the hours of the former experiment. A small proportion of honey seemed more useful than a larger one.

We have now given a pretty full account of this very instructive

structive volume: we think it contains some facts and observations of real value and importance, but we can only add our commendations in general, and express our wishes for the rest of Dr. Stark's posthumous Works.

The Present State of the Empire of Morocco. Translated from the French of Mr. Chenier. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. in Boards. Robinsons.

IN the beginning of the present century, some accounts of the empire of Morocco were successively published by several respectable authors, who had visited that country in a public capacity. But of all who have written on the subject, M. Chenier appears to have enjoyed the best opportunities of acquiring authentic information. He was appointed consul by the court of France in 1767, and resided in Morocco many years. Several English gentlemen, we are told, and merchants, now in London, were acquainted with him at Mogodor, and bear testimony both to his character and the veracity of his narrative. The translation now before us is only a part, but that unquestionably the most interesting, of the *Recherches Historiques sur les Maures*, by M. Chenier; as the two first volumes of the *Recherches* relate to the ancient history of Mauritania, the Arabs under the Caliphs, and the conquest of Spain by the Mahometans; all which subjects have been already treated with sufficient copiousness in many other historical productions.

The work begins with describing the geographical situation and extent of the empire of Morocco, which the author computes to be nearly two hundred leagues in length, from north to south, and about an hundred and thirty from east to west, in the broadest part. With respect to the geography of this country, it is impossible for a traveller to be very accurate; for the prejudices of the Moors, who entertain a jealousy of strangers, will not permit them to visit the inland provinces. M. Chenier, notwithstanding this obstruction to his researches, gives such an account of the various provinces of this extensive empire, as may enable the reader to form a general, and not indistinct idea of the subject.

We are next presented with a detail of the cities, rivers, and harbours, the description of which appears to be accurate, and is frequently interpersed with remarks. The present emperor has brought all the European merchants to settle at Mogodor; a city which was begun in 1760. It contains a great number of houses, handsomely and solidly built. It is surrounded with walls, and batteries are erected, not only on the

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the sea-side, but towards the land, to defend it from any incursion of the southern Moors. In case of an attack, however, this city, which has no water, and is half a league distant from the river Tanfis, would soon be at the mercy of the enemy.

The author informs us that the emperor's palace, at the extremity of the city of Morocco, fronting mount Atlas, is a very extensive and solid building. The principal gates are Gothic arches of cut stone, embellished with ornaments in the Arabian taste. Within the walls are various courts and gardens, elegantly laid out by European gardeners. In each of these gardens is a pavilion, to which the emperor frequently retires to take his repose, or amuse himself with his courtiers. The inside of these pavilions is a kind of spacious hall, that receives light and air from four large doors, in the four sides, which are opened more or less according to the position of the sun, or the coolness they may produce. The halls are painted and gilt in the style called Arabesque, and ornamented with cartouches, containing passages of the Koran, or other Arabic sentences. The furniture of these apartments is very simple; it consists only of a couch, some arm-chairs, tables, and china, or other embellishments; tea-equipage, clocks, arms hung round the walls, a water-pot, and carpets for prayers. The present emperor, who has shewn an exclusive preference to the city of Morocco, has added to his palace a large piece of ground, on which he has caused to be built, by Europeans, regular pavilions in the midst of gardens. Those are of hewn stone, have handsome windows, and are finished in an excellent style. We shall present our readers with the account of the celebrated mount Atlas, in this neighbourhood.

‘Mount Atlas, the boundary of the plain of Morocco, is situated at a small distance to the east of the city. This is the highest part of that mountain, the vallies of which, flourishing with trees and verdure, and contrasted with the snows on the summit, have a singular and picturesque effect. This chain of mountains defends the environs of Morocco from the east wind, which would be burning in summer, while the snows, that cover their tops, temper, at the same time, the heat of the climate. The nights there are constantly cool, and it is only from nine in the morning, till four or five in the afternoon, that any great heat is felt. The cold is sensibly felt in the winter, because of the snow which falls on the mountains; but the climate is extremely healthy. Foreigners, however, do not find Morocco an agreeable residence, for the houses are inconvenient and full of bugs; and, in summer, the multitudes of scorpions, serpents, and gnats, are inexpressly troublesome.’

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The city of Mequinez is situated eighty leagues north of Morocco, and twenty leagues east of Sallee and the sea. It is surrounded by vallies and eminences highly cultivated, ornamented with gardens and plantations of olive trees, and watered by a variety of streams. The emperor's palace at this city is likewise an extensive building, and includes several gardens.

Fez is another of the principal cities of the empire, as well as the most ancient; and it is, besides, the only one distinguished by a taste for the sciences, and the industry of its inhabitants. The situation of Fez is remarkable: it is seated at the bottom of a valley, and surrounded by hills in the form of a funnel, flattened at the narrow end. The upper part of the valley is divided into gardens, planted with high trees, orange-groves and orchards. A river winds along the valley, watering it in various directions, turning by its declivity a number of mills, and supplying water in abundance to all the gardens and most of the houses. The gardens round this city are said to form a most delightful amphitheatre.

On the western side of Fez stands the mountain Zaaron, on which is a village consecrated to Mahometan devotion. It contains the sanctuary of Sidi Edris, who came from Medina at the end of the eighth century, introduced Mahometanism, and was the first sovereign of his race in this part of Africa. This sanctuary is an asylum for malefactors, and never violated by the emperor of Morocco.

In most of the provinces are walled castles without artillery, in which the bashaws and governors live, and many more wholly uninhabited and falling to ruin. M. Chenier lodged in one of those castles in 1781, and gives the following account of the passage over the river Morbeya in its neighbourhood; an expedient which shows in a strong light the power of invention, even among a barbarous people.

‘The only ferry-boat is a raft, composed for the occasion, of reeds, to which skins full of wind are tied with cords, made from the palm leaf. This is sustained by several Moors, who, swimming, guide and support it by their shoulders, though the rapidity of the current is such as to drive it down the stream a mile in an instant. On this crazy raft travellers and their effects are transported. The mules swim across, driven by the muleteers. In September 1781, the waters being low, because of the heats, I forded this rapid river; a thing which had not happened before for five-and-twenty years.’

The climate of the empire of Morocco is in general healthy, and not so hot as its situation might lead us to suppose. The chain of mountains which form Atlas, on the eastern side, defends

defends it from the east winds, which would scorch up the earth, were they frequent. The summit of these mountains is always covered with snow, which falls so heavily in winter as often to bury the Brebes, who inhabit these vallies. Their plentiful streams spread verdure through the neighbourhood, make the winter more cold, and temper the heats of summer. The sea on the west side, which extends along the coast from north to south, likewise refreshes the land with regular breezes, that seldom vary, according to their seasons. But at a distance from the sea, the heat is so great that the rivulets become dry in summer. However, as in hot countries dews are plentiful, the nights are there always cool. The winters in Morocco are not severe, nor is there an absolute need of fire. In the coldest weather the thermometer seldom sinks to more than five degrees above the freezing point; and, during a long residence, M. Chenier never saw it lower than to two degrees and a half.

The soil of Morocco is, in general, extremely fertile. On the western coast it is light and stony, and is better adapted to the vine and olive than the culture of wheat. They annually burn, before the September rains, the stubble, which is left rather long; and this, with the dung of cattle, every day turned to pasture, forms the only manure the land receives. The soil requires but little labour, and the ploughing is so light, that the furrows are scarcely six inches deep; for which reason, in some provinces, wooden plough-shares are used for cheapness. The increase of corn in Morocco is often as sixty to one; and thirty is held to be but an indifferent harvest.

The inhabitants of Morocco are divided into two classes, the Moors and the Brebes, the latter of whom inhabit the mountains, and have a language peculiar to themselves, but without any distinction of dress. In the country, the Moors live in tents, and have new encampments every year, to give rest to the land, and obtain fresh pasturage. M. Chenier describes them as living in the utmost simplicity, and presenting a faithful picture of the earth's inhabitants in the first ages. Their common food is cooscoosoo, a paste made of flour in the form of small grains, in the manner of Indian pastes. The common people eat it with milk or butter indifferently; but those more at their ease, as the governors of provinces, or their lieutenants, who live in the centre of their encampments, have it dressed with a rich broth made of mutton, poultry, and pigeons, or hedge-hogs, and mix it afterwards with fresh butter. Of the ignorance of these country Moors our author relates the following extraordinary anecdote.

‘ I have

‘ I have seen one waiting for his dispatches in a room where there was a glass, and, his eye being caught by his own reflected figure, he imagined it was another courier waiting for dispatches in another apartment. Having asked to what place that courier was going, and being told to Mogodor, O then, said he, we will travel together. He made the proposition to his supposed comrade, who, like him, gesticulated in the glass, but gave no answer : he began to be angry till he saw another person reflected by the same glass enter the room. Astonished at his error, he could scarcely be persuaded, in spite of seeing and feeling, that it was possible to see one’s self, said he, through a stone.’

The Moors of the cities differ but little from those who live under tents, except that they have a little more urbanity, and that their appearance bespeaks them more wealthy. Their houses seldom have more than one story ; most of them are square, with a court in the centre, which gives light and entrance to four principal chambers that form the four faces of the square. They have no windows, nor is the light ever admitted from the street. For an account of the dress of the Moors, and a variety of circumstances concerning them, we must refer our readers to the work, where they will meet with much gratification, both from description and anecdote.

Our author gives likewise a satisfactory account of the animals in this country. Among the chief of these is the camel, which is of the utmost utility in hot climates and sandy countries. The conformation of his stomach, as M. Chenier observes, is such that he can remain several days without eating or drinking. Before he begins his journey, his keeper gives him a plentiful portion of barley ; and as he chews the cud he ruminates, while he travels, on this food, which lies deposited in his stomach until it is wanted. Water is in like manner preserved in a receptacle, which nature has prepared, of various bladders, and which is brought up into his mouth in proportion as he becomes thirsty.

Among the inhabitants of Morocco, we are informed that the lower orders, and especially the country people, practise theft with great address. Of their cunning, in deceiving each other, our author has given the following instance.

‘ —A thief, who had been condemned to be hanged by the arm-pits on the highway, was attended by his wife, weeping and lamenting his sufferings. Still desirous of exhibiting some new proof of his dexterity, he loudly and piteously called after a muleteer, who was passing with two loaded mules.

‘ Have compassion, generous friend, said he, on my wife and children ; assist them to draw out some effects which I have hidden in a pit.

‘ The

• The muleteer refused, saying, the goods were stolen, and that if he were caught he should be punished. Nay, but, replied the malefactor, if thou wilt only assist my wife, thou shalt have the half.

• On this the conscientious muleteer consented, and accompanied the wife to the place, who fastened a cord round his body that she might aid him as he descended into the pit. No sooner was he at the bottom than she threw him down the cord, and drove off the loaded mules.

The second volume of this work contains the history of the Moorish government, from the decline of the empire of the Caliphs to the present period. This part is judiciously abridged by the translator from the original of M. Chenier, and exhibits a regular detail of the most important transactions in the country, during a long succession of ages.

Before we conclude our account of this work, we shall only add, that from the great variety of information which it contains, it cannot but afford much gratification to an inquisitive reader. M. Chenier gives the fullest description of the country and inhabitants of Morocco, that has hitherto been published; and his translator has not only interpreted the original with perspicuity, but, by dividing the chapters, rendered the perusal more easy and agreeable.

Some Historical Account of Guinea. By Anthony Benezet. A new Edition. 8vo. 2s. in Boards. Philips.

MR. Anthony Benezet was of a respectable family, and was born at St. Quintin, in Picardy, in 1713. His father was one of the many protestants who, in consequence of the persecutions which followed the revocation of the edict of Nantz, sought an asylum in foreign countries. After a short stay in Holland, he settled with his wife and several children in London, whence, in 1731, the whole family removed to Philadelphia, where Anthony, the author of the present narrative, became afterwards one of the earliest and most distinguished advocates for the unfortunate Africans; and, in the prosecution of his benevolent efforts, collected all the information which he could procure from travellers, relative to the state of Guinea.

This part of Africa, from which the Negroes are sold to be carried into slavery, extends along the coast three or four thousand miles. The northern-most part of Guinea commences about the seventeenth degree of north latitude, at the great river Senegal, which is said to be navigable more than a thousand miles, and is described as very agreeable and fruitful.

ful. The same is said likewise to be the state of the country adjacent to the river Gambia, which is three hundred miles south of Senegal, and navigable about six hundred miles. The territory between these two rivers is inhabited principally by the Jalofs, Fulis, and Mandingos; of which several nations Mr. Benezet collects various particulars, from voyagers who had visited the country. The inhabitants are represented to be industrious, and of mild dispositions. Some of the Mandingos who are settled at Galem, far up the river Senegal, we are told, can read and write Arabic tolerably, and are a good hospitable people.

The three nations above mentioned practise several trades, as smiths, potters, saddlers, and weavers.

The next maritime part of Africa is the Grain and Ivory Coast, which extends about five hundred miles. This is likewise a fruitful country, producing abundance of rice, roots, and fruits. Flocks and herds are numerous, and fish is in great plenty. Mr. Benezet observes, that the inhabitants of this country are represented as rude by some writers; while others of credit give them a very different character, and say that they are sensible, courteous, and the fairest traders on the coast of Guinea.

Next adjoining to the Ivory Coast are those called the Gold Coast, and the Slave Coast. Travellers are not agreed about their bounds; but their extent together along the coast may be about five hundred miles. This part of the country is described to be, in general, extraordinary fruitful and agreeable; and the Europeans have in it the greatest number of forts and factories. From these, by means of the Negro factors, a trade is carried on about seven hundred miles back in the inland country; by which great numbers of slaves are procured. In this district, the kingdom of Whidah is particularly noted by travellers. Smith and Bosman, two of the authorities cited by Mr. Benezet, agree that it is one of the most delightful countries in the world, and that the natives are generally courteous.

Beyond the Slave Coast lies the kingdom of Benin, which, though it extends only about 170 miles along the sea, yet stretches so far inland, as to be esteemed the most potent kingdom in Guinea. By the accounts which Mr. Benezet had obtained, the soil and produce appear to be in a great measure the same with those before described; and the natives are said to be a sincere, good-natured people. Theft, murder, and adultery, we are told, are severely punished in this country.

The last division of Guinea from which slaves are imported, are the kingdoms of Kongo and Angola; these lie to the south of Benin, extending with the intermediate land about

twelve

twelve hundred miles on the coast. The soil is in general fertile, producing great plenty of grain, Indian corn, and such quantities of rice, that it hardly affords any profit, with fruits, roots, and palm-oil in abundance. The inhabitants are generally a quiet people, and behave to strangers in a mild manner. In these two kingdoms, great numbers of the natives profess the Christian religion, which was introduced by the Portuguese, who made early settlements in the country.

Mr. Benezet delivers afterwards the most ancient account of the Negroes, from the Nubian Geography, and the writings of Leo the African; with the first account of the English trading to Guinea.

He then proceeds to take a view of slavery, which he describes as more tolerable under Pagans and Turks than in the colonies. His account of the cruelties practised in the slave-trade, as described by factors of different nations, cannot but excite indignation in the breast of every person of humanity. As this subject has at length drawn the attention of parliament, we shall, at present, pursue it no farther; and conclude our account of Mr. Benezet's narrative with observing, that it forms a very powerful auxiliary to the other productions lately published with the view of abolishing the slavery of the Negroes in the West India Islands.

An Enquiry into the Nature, Causes, and Cure of the Consumption of the Lungs. By Michael Ryan, M. D. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Elliott.

DR. Ryan's acuteness and reading will not compensate for his deficiency in practice; and, where we disagree with him, we shall draw our objections from a source very different from that which has supplied his remarks. When one leg is shot off, said Sterne, and the organs of sanguification remain the same, the man dies of a plethora, 'or must spit blood, and in a fortnight or three weeks, go off in a consumption: it happens otherwise, replied the opponents: it *ought not*, said they.' We cannot, in this case, always explain what ought to be: from much experience, we know what usually does occur.

Dr. Ryan begins with a sufficiently correct detail of the usual symptoms; but he seems, from some subsequent parts of the volume, to consider the remissions as more distinct than they really are; for though there is generally a decided evening-attack, and sometimes an equally obvious one at noon, there is, in no instance, such a remission as gives room, for any very peculiar management of medicines or diet with respect to it. The malignancy of the ulcer too he considers as owing to the accession of air; but patients have certainly died of phthisis, without any purulent discharge; and, of course, without any reason

reason to suppose there was an *open* ulcer. We think they have died, without any evidence of an ulcer at all, and certainly without supposing the disease to have extended lower than the division of the trachea. But instances of this kind are very rare; and these decisions, from their nature, must be uncertain. It is at least clear, that consumptions generally arise from ulcers in the lungs, and of these consumptions our author particularly treats. He opposes, indeed, De Haen's idea, that consumptions may arise from other causes. He is correct in his remarks on one of De Haen's cases, that it probably was not consumption, but a dropsy. Hectic coughs, in appearance, often attend hydrothorax, and even a great degree of ascites: we have known them mistaken, by ignorant physicians, for consumptions. The equivocal appearance of the matter must, he thinks, leave the distinction still uncertain. Pus is, with great difficulty distinguished from mucus; and we suspect he describes the latter, under the name of the former. 'Pus,' he says, 'is generally greenish, yellow, or opaque.' This is exactly the appearance of mucus from inflamed glands, and it occurs in the early stages of peripneumony, while the inflammation is very distant from suppuration. Happily, the distinction is not of great importance: a hectic fever, from any cause, is equally an object of careful attention, and requires medicines of nearly the same kind.

Among the causes of consumption, hæmoptysis is said to be an uncommon one. Perhaps alone, it is never a cause. But phthisis is very nearly connected with spitting of blood, because both are produced by the same remote cause, in constitutions where the predisposition occurs. The hæmoptysis, which comes on in the progress of the disease, or at the end, from dissolved blood, has undoubtedly no pretensions to the rank of a cause. The healing of wounds in vessels of the lungs, shews that the access of air can do no injury to the ulcers of tubercles, if they were otherwise disposed to heal. Why consumptions should be so general in England our author cannot explain; and it is no disgrace to him, for it has never yet been explained.

Dr. Ryan is not willing to admit catarrh as a frequent exciting cause, and even adduces different accounts of the influenza, to show that consumptions did not often follow this disease. We cannot doubt the testimonies which he produces; but we think that we perceive the foundation of the error. The greater number of consumptions, which we saw, in consequence of the influenza, did not appear till the cold weather of winter, or the following spring; but the cough was constantly to be traced to that epidemic. Dust, in different occupations,

pations, certainly is an exciting cause of phthisis; but the phthisis calculosa is uncommon; and of about seven cases which have occurred to us, four of them, at least, seem to have been owing to a calculous disposition: two were cured by soap and lime-water. Asthma is, with propriety, excluded. The hydrothorax is its consequence; but, with many, this disease is phthisis. Scrophula is rather a predisposing than an exciting cause; but it is a very frequent one. Lymphatics and their glands *have* been 'certainly discovered on the lungs.' (Cruikshanks' Anatomy of the Absorbing Vessels, p. 177.)

The cure of phthisis is, we think, not perfectly accurate. Our author seems averse to a milk-diet; and not to be aware, that the great objections against animal food arise rather from its irritation in the stomach, and the weakness of that organ, which renders it incapable of proper assimilation, than from its stimulus when taken into the blood. Yet his objections are little more than nominal; for his animal food is chiefly directed in solution, in the form of broth. We shall take this opportunity of remarking, that the milk and vegetable diet is sometimes carried too far. There are stomachs to which it does not give a *sufficient* degree of irritation; and patients confined to it grow unusually weak and languid. To these it is necessary to give a portion of solid food. Some, from a constitutional disposition, cannot digest milk; and in others, the curd (for coagulation appears necessary to digestion), which it forms, is too hard. To the latter, a mixture of whey, of water, or water-gruel, is expedient: and it then gives no inconvenience. Warm cows whey, formed of some astringent vegetables, is a very proper addition when milk is too laxative, and much superior to Mead's astringent milk.

Riding on horseback our author supposes not so useful as has been imagined. It is undoubtedly an exercise that requires more exertion than a carriage, and less than walking: perhaps this forms its chief advantage. Emetics, he thinks too, may weaken the stomach; but this is not true. They sometimes harass the patient too much; but when he vomits with ease, an occasional emetic is of great service; sometimes they prove too laxative, in spite of every precaution, and they are then injurious.

That scrophulous phthisis requires different treatment from the other species of the disease, we have not found. We shall, however, extract our author's sentiments on that subject.

'Whatever difficulty there may arise in investigating the proximate cause of scrophula; we can have none in pointing out what regimen and diet is most suitable for counteracting its baneful effects. The state of relaxation and debility, inseparably

rably connected with this disease will undoubtedly authorize the administration of a generous diet, and the application of such remedies as increase the tone and contractility of the moving fibres: we must, therefore, supply the patient with plenty of animal food, and that of the most nutritious quality, and the most easy of digestion. If one or more ulcers be present, and happen to discharge profusely, which is commonly the case, the universal debility consequent thereon, will still more justifiably warrant the free and repeated use of a nourishing diet; even in the indolent state of the tumors, these directions, I apprehend, are in some degree admissible, as they assist in correcting the general cachectic state of the body. The increasing the tone of the fibres, as I have just now observed, is as necessary as the other part of the cure, and in this way I perceive sea bathing and the Peruvian bark, so universally employed, to be advantageous.

'I suppose it will be generally admitted, from the foregoing observations, that whatever part of the system these scrophulous ulcers occupy, the practice ought to hold good with very few restrictions. If a restorative diet be eligible, when the ulcers attack any certain part whatsoever; it must, of course, be equally so in any other, on condition that it is neither heating or inflammatory. The Peruvian bark will, I suppose, on the same principles be proper and useful. From these considerations, a strong presumption arises, that a nourishing diet and the Peruvian bark may be employed in the phthisis scrophulosa with safety.'

Dr. Ryan very candidly owns, that his experiments with this plan have not been successful. We find hectic patients will bear, with advantage, two motions (we speak in general) a day; and we find that salt-water with milk will produce these, without sickness or griping. What then should impede a trial, where we unite every advantage, and run no risk *? The nourishing diet employed during the healing of external ulcers, cannot surely be directed when there is a fever in the system, which forbids every thing stimulant.—Blistering appears of little use to Dr. Ryan; but the most successful events which we have seen, were in consequence of blisters applied repeatedly, and for a long continuance. A perpetual drain is the most certain method of relieving internal inflammation.

As a scrophulous medicine, Dr. Ryan recommends colts-foot; and in a strong decoction, as he directs, we have seen it frequently of great service. Of the cicuta he does not speak from experience; and he says nothing of the digitalis, though, from its taking off too great irritability, we suspect

* The phthisis, decidedly scrophulous, is rather uncommon; so that we have never adopted this plan; in a case immediately before us it is inadmissible from extreme weakness.

It may be of service. Of the healing balsams he speaks with disrespect, copying, perhaps, more modern authors, who have not observed, that the expectoration is sometimes checked from a weakness of the vessels. The balsams, with proper care, and in peculiar situations, are very useful, particularly the balsam of Peru.

The Appendix contains observations on Dr. Reid's work, which we think one of the most valuable on the subject. Our young author shows too much confidence, in drawing the Ulyssean bow with Ulysses. Yet, on the whole, though there is too much theory, and too little experience in this work, we have followed it with somewhat more attention than we should have done, had we not found marks of good sense, and a proper degree of candour, interspersed through it.

The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. By Edward Gibbon, Esq. Volumes IV. V. and VI. 4to. 3l. 3s. in Boards. Cadell.

WE rejoin the former companion of many pleasing pages with no common satisfaction. The age of controversy is now passed, and successive years has established a character, which opposition endeavoured to obscure, or which animosity was eager to undermine. One blemish must still remain, nor will these volumes contribute to efface it; but, while we view this dark spot with regret, it must not be permitted to hide the various qualities of the historian, which demand the praises of every impartial critic. Mr. Gibbon, in many respects, resembles Tacitus. At the æra when their respective languages had been polished with the most anxious care, each formed a new species of historical composition; each expressed the justest and most philosophical sentiments, in a style of expressive brevity, which keeps the attention constantly awake, exercises the judgment, and frequently suggests new topics, which the mind may at its leisure examine, or discussions which it may at a future period renew. With Hume or Robertson it might have been supposed, that the English language of history had reached its summit of perfection. Whether Gibbon has adopted a better style, is not our business to examine: he has employed a different one, which is at once elegant and energetic. Its pointed conciseness seems only to be occasionally studied with too much attention; and, in its terseness, we sometimes lose the first quality in historical composition, perspicuity. In other respects, Gibbon is such an historian as Rome might have placed in a rank above Tacitus. His varied and extensive information leaves nothing which it does not elucidate, his acquaintance with polite literature nothing which it does not

adorn; and, while he keeps the general tenour of his style with the majestic dignity of history, he becomes at times the orator and the poet. Montesquieu, who drew part of the out-line, which Gibbon has filled up, might have executed this task in an able manner. The specimen gave us reason to expect a very complete work; but from an author whom fancies occasionally dazzle, and whom hypotheses have sometimes misled, we might not have received a whole so perfect. We congratulate the world that Mr. Gibbon has had the twelve years 'of health, of leisure, and perseverance' which he wished; we thank him, that he has employed them so well for our service.

Mr. Gibbon's former volumes have engaged much of our attention. The first volume occurs in three different Numbers of the XLth. volume of our Journal; and the two subsequent ones are considered, at very considerable length, in the LIst. When such works occur, our readers are the chief gainers by so extensive an examination; and it requires no apology: in our present circumstances, we must be as concise as we can; but we must not sacrifice our author to impending avocations. We shall pursue therefore the narrative from the 426th page of the LIst. volume.

Zeno and Anastasius held with a feeble hand the sceptre of the East, and, under the mildness of their sway, a hero appeared who gave for a time the splendor of empire to forsaken Rome. Theodoric the Ostrogoth was of the race of the Amali: his youth was marked by spirit, enterprize, and generosity; his riper years by firmness and courage; his decline by cruelty and persecution. While the vigour of his mind remained, the selfish passions, the meaner jealousies, could find no place: when he was no longer Theodoric he was a tyrant. The Goths, in the heart of the eastern empire, were a doubtful band; their allegiance was suspicious; and their enmity might be destructive. When the balance which the eastern policy had formed, was destroyed by the union of the whole power in the illegitimate Theodoric, the artful court of Byzantium probably suggested the conquest of Italy to the spirited ruler of the Goths. He pursued the plan; he succeeded, and revived, for a time, the splendor of Rome. With Arian principles he was tolerant, and left the catholics in possession of the full power of the national religion: himself illiterate, he encouraged literature: without taste, he cherished the arts. The end of his life was sullied by persecution: his best deeds were blackened by the condemnation of Boethius. He lived, however, to repent; but the remorse of his last moments expiated very imperfectly the loss which had accrued to philosophy and literature, from his cruelty.

In the time of Theodoric, three barbarian peasants turned their eyes from their flocks to the army:—one of these rose by degrees to the command of the guards, and at last to the eastern empire. The elder Justin was brave but illiterate; and his more subtle and politic nephew gained the army by his largesses, and the clergy by his catholic faith and his intolerance. Justinian was consequently invested with the title of *Nobilissimus*, in his uncle's reign; and, after his death, succeeded peaceably to a throne which he held more than thirty-eight years. This reign occupies the greater part of the fourth volume. It is important, in a military and a literary view. Mr. Gibbon has examined it with the minuteness which it merits, and has displayed his usual sagacity, his penetration, and his learning. The jurisprudence and the theology of the emperor; the controversies and sects which still divide the oriental church; and the reformation of the Roman law, which is still obeyed by many enlightened nations of Europe, are successively examined by the historian of the Roman empire.

Of the civil reign of Justinian much is said: Theodora, taken from the stage to be exalted to the eastern throne, as the consort of Justinian, has not escaped the virulence of historians, who perhaps were blinded by her former profession; probably by her heterodoxy. If she was once licentious, she seems to have been at last virtuous; for calumny has not stained the fame of the wife of the emperor. If she was once voluptuous, she was at last firm and courageous. To her it was owing, that Justinian did not fly from the rebellious attempts of the nephews of Anastasius; and her spirit anticipated the heroism of Catharine, who, in similar circumstances, and with a virtue, before her marriage also equivocal, preserved Peter the Great by efforts equally meritorious. Mr. Gibbon explains also, though a little too late, the blue and the green factions, which, though they at first arose only from the distinctions of dresses in the circus and hippodrome, yet, more than once, threatened to subvert the empire. He explains the ancient commerce between Constantinople and China for silk, and the introduction of that elegant luxury into the eastern empire. The revenues of Justinian were ample; but his profusion exceeded them. He was avaricious and prodigal; and though much of the infamy rested on John of Cappadocia, it cannot be denied that the weakness of the emperor was, at least, an accomplice to the avarice, perhaps the treachery of the prefect. The character of John is written in our author's best manner. Our readers cannot but be pleased with seeing it.

His knowledge was not borrowed from the schools, and his style was scarcely legible; but he excelled in the powers of native

genius, to suggest the wisest counsels, and to find expedients in the most desperate situations. The corruption of his heart was equal to the vigour of his understanding. Although he was suspected of magic and pagan superstition, he appeared insensible to the fear of God or the reproaches of man; and his aspiring fortune was raised on the death of thousands, the poverty of millions, the ruin of cities, and the desolation of provinces. From the dawn of light to the moment of dinner, he assiduously laboured to enrich his master and himself at the expence of the Roman world; the remainder of the day was spent in sensual and obscene pleasures, and the silent hours of the night were interrupted by the perpetual dread of the justice of an assassin. His abilities, perhaps his vices, recommended him to the lasting friendship of Justinian; the emperor yielded with reluctance to the fury of the people; his victory was displayed by the immediate restoration of their enemy; and they felt above ten years, under his oppressive administration, that he was stimulated by revenge rather than instructed by misfortune. Their murmurs served only to fortify the resolution of Justinian; but the præfect, in the insolence of favour, provoked the resentment of Theodora, disdained a power before which every knee was bent, and attempted to sow the seeds of discord between the emperor and his beloved consort. Even Theodora herself was constrained to dissemble, to wait a favourable moment, and by an artful conspiracy to render John of Cappadocia the accomplice of his own destruction. At a time when Belisarius, unless he had been a hero, must have shewn himself a rebel, his wife Antonina, who enjoyed the secret confidence of the empress, communicated his feigned discontent to Euphemia the daughter of the præfect; the credulous virgin imparted to her father the dangerous project, and John, who might have known the value of oaths and promises, was tempted to accept a nocturnal, and almost treasonable interview with the wife of Belisarius. An ambuscade of guards and eunuchs had been posted by the command of Theodora; they rushed with drawn swords to seize or to punish the guilty minister: he was saved by the fidelity of his attendants; but, instead of appealing to a gracious sovereign, who had privately warned him of his danger, he pusillanimously fled to the sanctuary of the church. The favourite of Justinian was sacrificed to conjugal tenderness or domestic tranquillity; the conversion of a præfect into a priest extinguished his ambitious hopes; but the friendship of the emperor alleviated his disgrace, and he retained in the mild exile of Cyzicus an ample portion of his riches. Such imperfect revenge could not satisfy the unrelenting hatred of Theodora; the murder of his old enemy, the bishop of Cyzicus, afforded a decent pretence; and John of Cappadocia, whose actions had deserved a thousand deaths, was at last condemned for a crime of which he was innocent. A great minister, who had been invested with the honours of consul and patrician, was ignominiously scourged like the vilest of malefactors; a tattered cloak was the sole remnant of his fortunes; he was transported

ported in a bark to the place of his banishment, at Antinopolis in Upper Egypt, and the præfect of the East begged his bread through the cities which had trembled at his name. During an exile of seven years, his life was protracted and threatened by the ingenious cruelty of Theodora; and when her death permitted the emperor to recall a servant whom he had abandoned with regret, the ambition of John of Cappadocia was reduced to the humble duties of the sacerdotal profession. His successors convinced the subjects of Justinian, that the arts of oppression might still be improved by experience and industry; the frauds of a Syrian banker were introduced into the administration of the finances: and the example of the præfect was diligently copied by the quæstor, the public and private treasurer, the governors of provinces, and the principal magistrates of the Eastern empire.

Among the expences of Justinian, the greatest and the noblest were the public edifices. After celebrating the genius of Anthemius, Mr. Gibbon describes, from good authorities, the church of St. Sophia, the most splendid ornament of the Christian religion, in that age of splendor, and at present the most brilliant residence of Mahometan superstition. Churches, palaces, and fortifications contributed to exhaust the treasury of Justinian, and remained as monuments of the piety, the caprice, and the weakness of the emperor and the empire. The Roman spirit could no longer defend the capital: it was lost in walls and fortresses. In describing these, our historian glances at the enemies they were destined to oppose; and this chapter contains much information relating to the predatory incursions of the Isaurians, and the more regular but not less dangerous attempts of the Persians. A different system led the emperor to abolish the schools of Athens, and the consulship of Rome: in either his expences were inconsiderable; but the former still secretly adhered to the pagan doctrines, and the latter bore the semblance at least of sovereignty. We can scarcely lament either event; yet, while the writings of Simplicius remain, it will be evident that the learning of Athens had not wholly degenerated into verbal quibbles, or sceptical disquisitions.

The wars of Justinian were carried on by Belisarius: while the vain title of Rome to the dominion of the world remained, an enterprising spirit would find some pretext to render it real. The veteran legions, who had fought in Persia, and conquered on the confines of the eastern empire, were led to Africa, and Carthage was conquered, after it had been once destroyed. The Vandal dominion in Africa was overthrown. The civil broils of the Gothic chiefs; the female descendant of Theodoric, who possessed his abilities, but was unequal to the sway of a turbulent nation, that would own no female rule; the voluntary resignation of the last descendant of the Gothic chief; all con-

tributed to turn Justinian's views to Rome. Belisarius was again victorious; and, though besieged in Rome, he knew how to repel the numerous armies of the Goths, and to check an attack, which has been paralleled only by that of the Turks on Rhodes, and perhaps by that of the French and Spaniards on Gibraltar. The attacks were equally violent and formidable; the defences equally spirited and successful. Much of Belisarius' success was owing to his own talents; much to fortune: the catholicism of Justinian contributed somewhat to the success of his arms; and a divided people, a nation not wholly conquered, with enervated conquerors, could not offer an adequate resistance to the spirited attacks of soldiers, who, though mercenaries, inherited the Roman name, and endeavoured to deserve it. We have preserved the character of the minister, the corrupt præfect of the East; let us add to it that of Justinian's successful general.

‘Whenever he appeared in the streets and public places of Constantinople, Belisarius attracted and satisfied the eyes of the people. His lofty stature and majestic countenance fulfilled their expectations of an hero; the meanest of his fellow-citizens were emboldened by his gentle and gracious demeanour; and the martial train which attended his footsteps, left his person more accessible than in a day of battle. Seven thousand horsemen, matchless for beauty and valour, were maintained in the service, and at the private expence of the general. Their prowess was always conspicuous in single combats, or in the foremost ranks; and both parties confessed, that in the siege of Rome, the guards of Belisarius had alone vanquished the Barbarian host. Their numbers were continually augmented by the bravest and most faithful of the enemy; and his fortunate captives, the Vandals, the Moors, and the Goths, emulated the attachment of his domestic followers. By the union of liberality and justice, he acquired the love of the soldiers, without alienating the affections of the people. The sick and wounded were relieved with medicines and money; and still more efficaciously by the healing visits and smiles of their commander. The loss of a weapon or an horse was instantly repaired, and each deed of valour was rewarded by the rich and honourable gifts of a bracelet or a collar, which were rendered more precious by the judgment of Belisarius. He was endeared to the husbandmen by the peace and plenty which they enjoyed under the shadow of his standard. Instead of being injured, the country was enriched by the march of the Roman armies; and such was the rigid discipline of their camp, that not an apple was gathered from the tree, not a path could be traced in the fields of corn. Belisarius was chaste and sober. In the licence of a military life, none could boast they had seen him intoxicated with wine: the most beautiful captives of Gothic or Vandal race were offered to his embraces; but he turned aside from
their

their charms, and the husband of Antonina was never suspected of violating the laws of conjugal fidelity. The spectator and historian of his exploits has observed, that amidst the perils of war, he was daring without rashness, prudent without fear, slow or rapid according to the exigencies of the moment; that in the deepest distress he was animated by real or apparent hope, but that he was modest and humble in the most prosperous fortune. By these virtues, he equalled or excelled the ancient masters of the military art. Victory, by sea and land, attended his arms. He subdued Africa, Italy, and the adjacent islands, led away captives the successors of Genseric and Theodoric; filled Constantinople with the spoils of their palaces, and in the space of six years, recovered half the provinces of the western empire. In his fame and merit, in wealth and power, he remained, without a rival, the first of the Roman subjects: the voice of envy could only magnify his dangerous importance; and the emperor might applaud his own discerning spirit, which had discovered and raised the genius of Belisarius.'

While the emperor of the East was victorious in Africa and Italy, the frontiers of the empire were left undefended, by the absence of the Goths, who went to Italy under Theodoric, and were attacked by a new nation who appeared in the confines of mount Imaus and the Caspian; a nation destined to succeed Justinian, and hold nearly the same dominions which he possessed. This people the Romans had never heard of, but from the Avars, who had fled before them: this conquered band offered their services to Justinian as invincible; this fugitive race styled themselves irresistible. They introduced, however, their conquerors to the Romans; and the ambition of the Persian monarch made them friends, from the sense of common interest.

The ambition of Chosroes had less of an object than his apprehensions. He heard of Justinian's victories, and dreaded where he might next turn his arms. Before his legions returned from the Tyber, the wars between the vassals of these princes had been secretly fomented and obscurely carried on, till at last the king of Persia invaded Syria, and pursued the war with a predatory avarice. The name and appearance of Belisarius checked his career. The repentance of the faithless Colchians, who, after their revolt and their voluntary submission to the Persian monarch, returned to the dominion of Justinian, crushed his ambitious designs in that quarter; and a fifty years of suspicious peace was agreed to on both sides.

The reign of Justinian in the latter period was turbulent, and in effect calamitous: the Moors revolted in Africa; the Goths in Italy. Though each were in some degree subdued, the countries only exhibited the destructive steps of a civil war, in almost a general desolation. The hero Belisarius, in the
successful

successful recovery of Italy, was superseded by the eunuch Narses, whose spirit at least showed no signs of mutilation; and, to his triumphs, he added the defeat of the Franks and Allemani, who, after the expulsion of the Goths, invaded Italy. Belisarius in the decline of life put on the helmet once more, and once more victory crowned his toils. The Bulgarians came almost to the walls of Constantinople, and were repelled. But this last effort could not reconcile those who envied or hated him. He was accused of conspiring against Justinian's life: his estate and honours were taken away; but they were soon restored, and the story of 'date Obolum Belisario' has only contributed to illustrate a moral tale on the vicissitudes of human life, or to give celebrity to the names of a painter and an engraver.

Soon after this event, Justinian died. His character may be shortly drawn. Laborious without genius, aspiring without military talents, and blinded by the suspicious policy of a jealous court, his fame has been transferred to his generals and his lieutenants. If the choice of these was accidental, he was fortunate; if, from a conviction of their merit, he was wise and judicious. From the Pandects he is chiefly known, and for these he deserves commendation.

We have followed our author in a continued narrative, as it would give the best idea of his opinions, without broken references to chapters or their different portions. On the next subject we must be more concise; for, though we wished to have finished the volume in this Number, we can review only the labours of Justinian, in our author's account of his reformation of the Roman law.

Before he speaks of the reformation, or the decline of the Roman law, he examines its origin in the ruder periods, when the combinations of social intercourse were few, and the necessity of guarding against error scarcely existed. Mr. Gibbon traces the origin of the Twelve Tables, their influence and extent, with the numerous edicts of civilized Rome, their occasional union under one code; or the additions which the caprice or fancy, the jealousy or revenge, the wisdom or justice of succeeding emperors had made. The succession of civil lawyers is his next object; and, from the contending opinions and diffuse commentaries which then existed, modern times may almost congratulate themselves on the conciseness of their laws. Philosophy was added to assist jurisprudence; and authority often superseded both. The law was sometimes rigorously, sometimes liberally interpreted; and justice was occasionally lost in the contentions of sects. The perpetual edict of Hadrian shortened these controversies, and the quintumvirate of legal authority

city under Theodosius was without appeal. In five civilians there must be a majority, yet our author adds 'if they *were equally divided*' the casting vote was Papinian's. How this could be done is not easy to conceive: perhaps a less number was competent to decide; but if it was, our author should have told us so. The history of Pandects is not new; but we wish to embellish our Journal with one other character, that of Tribonian, the chief labourer in this new field.

'This extraordinary man, the object of so much praise and censure, was a native of Side, in Pamphilia, and his genius, like that of Bacon, embraced as his own all the business and knowledge of the age. Tribonian composed both in prose and verse, on a strange diversity of curious and abstruse subjects: a double panegyric of Justinian, and the life of the philosopher Theodotus; the nature of happiness, and the duties of government; Homer's Catalogue, and the four and twenty sorts of Metre; the Astronomical Canon of Ptolemy; the Changes of the Months; the Houses of the Planets; and the Harmonic System of the World. To the literature of Greece he added the use of the Latin tongue; the Roman civilians were deposited in his library and in his mind; and he most assiduously cultivated those arts which opened the road of wealth and preferment. From the bar of the prætorian præfects, he raised himself to the honours of quæstor, of consul, and of master of the offices: the council of Justinian listened to his eloquence and wisdom, and envy was mitigated by the gentleness and affability of his manners. The reproaches of impiety and avarice have stained the virtues or the reputation of Tribonian. In a bigotted and persecuting court, the principal minister was accused of a secret aversion to the Christian faith, and was supposed to entertain the sentiments of an atheist and a pagan, which have been imputed, inconsistently enough, to the last philosophers of Greece. His avarice was more clearly proved and more sensibly felt. If he were swayed by gifts in the administration of justice, the example of Bacon will again occur; nor can the merit of Tribonian atone for his baseness, if he degraded the sanctity of his profession; and if laws were every day enacted, modified, or repealed, for the base consideration of his private emolument. In the sedition of Constantinople, his removal was granted to the clamours, perhaps to the just indignation of the people; but the quæstor was speedily restored, and, till the hour of his death, he possessed, above twenty years, the favour and confidence of the emperor. His passive and dutiful submission has been honoured with the praise of Justinian himself, whose vanity was incapable of discerning how often that submission degenerated into the grossest adulation. Tribonian adored the virtues of his gracious master; the earth was unworthy of such a prince; and he affected a pious fear, that Justinian, like Elijah or Romulus, would be snatched

snatched into the air, and translated alive to the mansions of celestial glory.'

The code of Justinian was the first work: it was designed to imitate the form and the concise decisions of the Twelve Tables.

To compose the Pandects was a more arduous operation, as, from that mass of questions, controversies, and refinements, it was designed to extract the spirit of the Roman jurisprudence. The publication of the Pandects was preceded by the Institutes, or elements of the Roman law: but it is not uncommon, in mentioning the labours of Justinian, for he might have said, 'quorum ipse pars magna fui,' to use the different terms without an exact discrimination.

In the reign of Justinian this work was repeatedly changed; and sixteen of his own edicts, with one hundred and sixty-eight novels (new decisions), had been admitted into the authentic body of law. The accuracy of the copy, or the substance of the Institutes, we cannot abridge. Mr. Gibbon has executed it with great precision, and we shall not presume to delineate a shadow, from a shade. Yet we may observe, that Mr. Gibbon countenances the severity of the Roman creditor, in opposition to those who refine the meaning of the law, and interpret it more consistently with the rights of humanity; that he draws in the fullest colours, the cruelty of that summary justice which fathers of families exercised; the venality of public justice, and the corruption of the Roman people.—Mr. Gibbon concludes with some reflections on the abuse of civil jurisprudence, and then proceeds to the reign of Justin. We hope to be able to follow him very soon.

The Life of Captain James Cook. By Andrew Kippis, D. D. F. R. S. and S. A. 4to. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Robinsons.

IF it be a pleasing task to contemplate the lives and actions of eminent men, it must be more agreeable when these lives are connected with the most uncommon and most interesting events. If we look at captain Cook, we shall perceive a man rising from an obscure station by his intrinsic merit; but, by the intervention also of fortunate circumstances, which equal merit seldom meets with, and without whose assistance equal deserts might sleep unnoticed. He was an apprentice to a shopkeeper, and in a coasting coal vessel; but he became a post captain, an astronomer, a very able geographer, and the most successful navigator that any age probably ever saw. Columbus sailed through less extensive seas, was involved in fewer of the dangers of navigation; and his discoveries, if more important in their consequences, were achieved with less

less personal danger, and with less immediate advantage to science. The discovery of another world, from his scientific views alone, raise him to the higher rank; but, if these views were borrowed, as is contended in the late Transactions of the American Society, he sinks below captain Cook. Vasquez de Gama comes nearer in character to our navigator. His discoveries were important; and, if conducted through unknown channels, were not carried to unknown countries. It required little exertion of genius or of science to find that it was only possible to arrive at a south-eastern country by following a coast which trended southerly, till it assumed an eastern direction. Yet, in extent of navigation, and in discoveries, he was inferior to Cook. If we compare him with Magelhaens, Anson, and other circumnavigators of the globe, we may find greater fortitude in the latter, since their exigencies were greater, and they were not provided with the same supports; yet no circumstance occurred in which our navigator did not display the coolness, fortitude, and intrepidity, equal to the occasion. There was no reason to suppose that, either in active or passive courage, he would have been inferior to Anson or Dampier.

It has been objected to England, by various writers on the continent, that she looks with cool indifference on her greatest benefactors; and that it was particularly disgraceful to see that Cook received no public honours. The English are not, indeed, enthusiasts in raising their acclamations, they are not exuberant in accumulating their praises, or prodigal in bestowing their honours. Captain Cook has received general approbation; but he did not advance one step too fast in the naval line. His humane precautions, in preserving the health of seamen, attracted the attention of the Royal Society; and *they* bestowed their best honours, the annual medal, and a seat in their Society. The government has carried its regard beyond the grave, by its attention to his surviving relatives. It is not easy to say, what a cool reflecting people should have done more: we know what would have been done in another nation, and we know what compliments have been paid to his memory by individuals; but these are not the objects of our present attention.

Yet, perhaps, among the honours which the memory of captain Cook has received, we ought to consider the Life before us, written with no common care, and compiled from sources the most authentic. Dr. Kippis writes with the calm dignity which distinguished the actions he describes, and, without intemperate praise, or exaggerated encomiums, he points out the great importance of captain Cook's discoveries, and the great abilities which he displayed in their pursuit.

suit. If there is an error, it is one common to the most accurate biographers, and, at best, a venial one; we mean, giving to trifles a little too much importance.

There was a great difficulty in the conduct of this work, which Dr. Kippis seems to have felt, and to have escaped from very properly. In the *Life of Captain Cook* his voyages were the most important objects; but to have abridged every part of his three voyages would have been an arduous undertaking, and an improper attempt. To have spoken of them slightly, would have robbed Cook of his most striking merits. The line which Dr. Kippis has drawn is this:—to give a connected detail of the whole, but to bring forward in the picture only those parts in which our navigator was personally conspicuous. The private life of Cook is chiefly new; and many little facts and anecdotes, which interest us in a life of so much public utility, are collected from the best information.

Mr. Cook, we have said, was originally an apprentice in the coal trade; and he afterwards became a mate of a coasting vessel. In the war of 1755, fearful of being pressed while he was in the Thames, he entered as a volunteer on board the *Eagle*. Sir Hugh Palliser was appointed, soon after his engagement, to command her, and he distinguished Cook as an able, active, and diligent seaman. It was parliamentary interest which raised him to the post of master. He was appointed successively to the *Grampus* and *Garland*, without being able, from accidents, to take possession of his office: at last he was appointed to the *Mercury*; but all these successive changes occurred in five days; so active were his friends! In the *Mercury*, he went with sir Charles Saunders and general Wolfe to Quebec, and, by the recommendation of sir Hugh Palliser, was appointed to take the soundings between the island of Orleans and the north shore of the river St. Lawrence. He made a complete draught of the channel and soundings, though he knew nothing of drawing, and had before scarcely ever used a pencil. He afterwards finished the chart of the whole river below Quebec; and it was so complete, that no other has been since wanted. Cook was removed to the *Northumberland*; and in that ship was at the recapture of Newfoundland, where his attention and diligence, in surveying the harbour and heights of Placentia, recommended him to the notice of admiral Graves, by whose advice he was afterwards appointed marine surveyor at Newfoundland; and he enjoyed this post under the command also of his first friend sir Hugh Palliser, who succeeded captain Graves in the government.

His first appointment, on a voyage of discovery, originated from a very singular circumstance. When the Royal Society wished

wished to send astronomers to observe the transit of Venus, in some of the islands of the Pacific Ocean, discovered by Tasman, now styled the Friendly Islands, Mr. Dalrymple was appointed to the command. To procure a proper subordination in the crew, that gentleman thought it necessary to have a brevet rank of captain; but sir Edward Hawke positively and strenuously refused to sign such a commission, or to trust his majesty's ship to any one not bred to the profession. In this dilemma, Mr. Cook was recommended by Mr. Stevens; he was appointed; and on this occasion made a lieutenant in his majesty's service. The voyage has been related by the eloquent pen of Dr. Hawkesworth; but why it did not universally please, is not our present business to enquire: it is enough that the principal events are recorded in our Journal, vol. XXXVI. p. 369, and vol. XXXVII. p. 1.

Mr. Dalrymple could not hear, with great satisfaction, the applauses which, but for professional punctilio, he might have obtained, and was unwilling to give up his opinion of the existence of a southern continent. In his two quarto volumes of Voyages and Discoveries in the Pacific Ocean, and in his angry letter to Dr. Hawkesworth (*Crit. Rev.* Vol. XXXVII, p. 10.) he still supports, and adduces fresh arguments for, his opinion. The subject, undoubtedly, was not fully elucidated; and it occasioned the second voyage, which was related by captain Cook himself, with great plainness and force. Dr. Kippis gives an abridged account of this voyage also, and the principal events may be found in our review of Mr. Forster's Relation, and of captain Cook's, in our XLIII^d volume. The idea of a southern continent, except it be found environed with perpetual snows, or fast locked in 'endless barriers of thick-ribbed ice,' is found now to be visionary.

There was one great object which remained, viz. the northern terminations of the two vast continents, whose southern extremities branch out into those points of land called the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn. Was it possible to surround either of these inaccessible northern latitudes, so as to facilitate the passage to India and China? Through Hudson's or Baffin's Bay it was supposed to be impossible to surround America; and this supposition has been since demonstrated to be true. The Russian vessels had at different periods surrounded the north of Europe and Asia; but the obstacles were numerous, the voyage extensive, and in no respect likely to facilitate navigation. It was necessary to examine it on the other side of each continent, before the question could be absolutely decided. At the same time, in a voyage to the northern Pacific, many important questions might be determined, which

which we have already had occasion to point out. Captain Cook performed his task with his usual ability and accuracy: we followed him again, in our Journal, in the LXIId volume. In some parts, Dr. Kippis adds to the general accounts a few minute particulars, which either escaped notice, or were not thought of sufficient importance to be included in a great work, though they are well adapted for a biographical design. The narrative of captain Cook's death is inserted from Mr. Samwell's account, which we considered in our LXIst volume, p. 410. To us it did not appear so important in its variations as it does to Dr. Kippis, for whose purpose it was originally written, and at whose desire it was published in a separate state. It was, we find, the opinion of captain Phillips, who commanded the marines, that if no mistake had been committed respecting the launch, it was exceedingly probable that nothing could have been done to preserve his life.

On Cook's return, the conduct of the court of France, *then* at war with England, was highly liberal and meritorious. The measure was solely owing to the humane and intelligent M. Turgot. Dr. Franklin *recommended* a similar conduct.

'In the confidence which the doctor expressed, with respect to the approbation of congress, he happened to be mistaken. As the members of that assembly, at least with regard to the greater part of them, were not possessed of minds equally enlightened with that of their ambassador, he was not supported by his masters in this noble act of humanity, of love to science, and of liberal policy. The orders he had given were instantly reversed; and it was directed by congress, that especial care should be taken to seize captain Cook, if an opportunity of doing it occurred. All this proceeded from a false notion that it would be injurious to the United States for the English to obtain a knowledge of the opposite coast of America.

'The conduct of the court of Spain was regulated by similar principles of jealousy. It was apprehended by that court, that there was reason to be cautious of granting, too easily, an indulgence to captain Cook; since it was not certain what mischiefs might ensue to the Spaniards from a northern passage to their American dominions. M. de Belluga, a Spanish gentleman and officer, of a liberal and a philosophical turn of mind, and who was a member of the Royal Society of London, endeavoured to prevail upon the count of Florida Blanca, and M. d'Almodavar, to grant an order of protection to the Resolution and Discovery: and he flattered himself, that the ministers of the king of Spain would be prevailed upon to prefer the cause of science to the partial views of interest: but the Spanish government was not capable of rising to so enlarged and magnanimous a plan of policy.'

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We have preserved Dr. Kippis's mild relation, since we might have expressed ourselves with more indignation; and we have preserved it on account of its containing important facts, well authenticated. Indeed, the jealousy of congress had a better foundation than they were aware of. Their ginseng could not long be in favour with the Chinese, or furnish a sufficient investment for the trade with China. The sea-otter skins, on the western coast of America, were highly valuable for that purpose, and, if the market had been fed with discretion, they would have been a very important article of commerce. At present, in consequence of rash, imprudent speculations from India, the price is greatly diminished.

The last chapter contains the character of captain Cook; and from this character we shall transcribe a specimen of Dr. Kippis's work.

' It cannot, I think, be denied, that genius belonged to captain Cook in an eminent degree. By genius I do not here understand imagination merely, or that power of culling the flowers of fancy which poetry delights in; but an inventive mind; a mind full of resources; and which, by its own native vigour, can suggest noble objects of pursuit, and the most effectual methods of attaining them. This faculty was possessed by our navigator in its full energy, as is evident from the uncommon sagacity and penetration which he discovered in a vast variety of critical and difficult situations.

' To genius captain Cook added application, without which nothing very valuable or permanent can be accomplished, even by the brightest capacity. For an unremitting attention to whatever related to his profession, he was distinguished in early life. In every affair that was undertaken by him, his assiduity was without interruption, and without abatement. Wherever he came, he suffered nothing which was fit for a seaman to know or to practise, to pass unnoticed, or to escape his diligence.

' The genius and application of captain Cook were followed by a large extent of knowledge; a knowledge which, besides a consummate acquaintance with navigation, comprehended a number of other sciences. In this respect, the ardor of his mind rose above the disadvantages of a very confined education. His progress in the different branches of the mathematics, and particularly in astronomy, became so eminent, that, at length, he was able to take the lead in making the necessary observations of this kind, in the course of his voyages. He attained, likewise, to such a degree of proficiency in general learning, and the art of composition, as to be able to express himself with a manly clearness and propriety, and to become respectable as the narrator, as well as the performer, of great actions.

' Another thing, strikingly conspicuous in captain Cook, was the perseverance with which he pursued the noble objects to which his life was devoted. This, indeed, was a most distin-

guishing feature in his character: in this he scarcely ever had an equal, and never a superior. Nothing could divert him from the points he aimed at; and he persisted in the prosecution of them, through difficulties and obstructions which would have deterred minds of very considerable strength and firmness.

‘What enabled him to persevere in all his mighty undertakings, was the invincible fortitude of his spirit. Of this, instances without number occur in the accounts of his expeditions; two of which I shall take the liberty of recalling to the attention of my readers. The first is, the undaunted magnanimity with which he prosecuted his discoveries along the whole south-east coast of New Holland. Surrounded as he was with the greatest possible dangers, arising from the perpetual succession of rocks, shoals, and breakers, and having a ship that was almost shaken to pieces by repeated perils, his vigorous mind had a regard to nothing but what he thought was required of him by his duty to the public. It will not be easy to find, in the history of navigation, a parallel example of courageous exertion. The other circumstance I would refer to is the boldness with which, in his second voyage, after he left the Cape of Good Hope, he pushed forwards into unknown seas, and penetrated through innumerable mountains and islands of ice, in the search of a southern continent. It was like launching into chaos: all was obscurity, all was darkness before him; and no event can be compared with it, except the sailing of Magelhaens, from the straits which bear his name, into the Pacific Ocean *.’

In other respects, the fortitude of captain Cook was accompanied with coolness, and complete self-possession; with humanity, and the virtues which adorn the more social and retired circle; with the modesty and simplicity of a truly great mind. That he was occasionally hasty and passionate, seems to have been his greatest failing.—Characters of our great navigator, by different authors, are subjoined.

Of the objects of his important voyages, and their consequences, we have already had occasion to speak pretty copiously: they are fully detailed in the admirable introduction to the last voyage, written by the present bishop of Carlisle; and they are examined at some length, also, by Dr. Kippis. If there is any one that we have been less attentive to, because it has been most distant from our own line, it is the perfection of nautical astronomy, which, with the assistance of the publications of the board of longitude, is now very extensively diffused, and pretty generally, as well as accurately understood. The French have followed our steps, in fitting out voyagers for discovery; and the account of these voyages, so far as they are known in Europe, is taken by Dr. Kippis, with

* For the two remarks above mentioned, I am indebted to Mr. Hodges.’

proper acknowledgment, from our Journal for April last, where they first appeared in English. The various poetical eulogiums, the account of the subscription medal by the Royal Society, the provision for captain Cook's widow and orphans, conclude the work.

Where so much is well done, there is little room for criticism ; yet we think a general map of captain Cook's discoveries should have been added : Mr. Roberts's chart would have been a very proper appendage. The head of captain Cook is a real ornament to the work : it is an excellent likeness, and a very good engraving.

The Appendix was to contain a short biographical sketch of captain King ; but our author has been disappointed in receiving the materials which he expected. Its only present contents are *Morai*, an ode, by miss Helen Williams, of which we have already given our opinion. But we must not conclude this article, without offering our tribute of praise to the author, who has joined to a very interesting account of a man, whose life was of the greatest importance to the world, an accurate and valuable abridgment of his labours ; who has united information to entertainment ; and has pleased by the neatness of his style, while he has instructed by numerous and important remarks.

Humanity ; or, the Rights of Nature, a Poem ; in two Books.

4to. 5s. Cadell.

THIS performance is to be considered as 'a general outline, with here and there some sketched features of a work, the nature of which is frequently alluded to in different parts of the poem.' It is mentioned in a separate leaf, at the end, as now preparing for the press, and entitled, 'Society, or a Prospect of mankind under all the influences of custom, colour, and climate.'

As this poem, therefore, though extensive, must be looked upon as merely preliminary to one much greater, we shall lay before our readers a summary account of it, with some cursory remarks as we proceed. The introductory lines are pleasing and harmonious : in those that follow the author proposes to take an extensive view of humanity, and exhibit it in different lights. The Humane Society, our hospitals, the philanthropy of Howard, and Mr. Gilbert's plan for the relief of the poor, are respectively taken notice of. The present scheme for redressing the negroes' grievances affords too tempting an opportunity to be neglected. Mr. Pratt is, accordingly, very diffuse upon this popular subject.

* Blush, Britain blush, for thou, 'tis thou hast fold
 A richer gem than India's mines can hold ;
 Traffick'd thy soft HUMANITY away,
 And turn'd her strongest objects into prey !'

Here we find, that the mines of India cannot hold a *gem* which our countrymen have sold ; that *that gem* is humanity, whose objects they turn'd *into prey*. This is a strange kind of conjuration ; but a metamorphosis no less extraordinary takes place in the next lines, among the sellers of the afore-said gem.

' Thy generous sons upon that fatal shore,
 Their nature lose, and *barden into ore.*'

Because, we suppose,

' There greedy avarice rears his *venal* throne,
 'Midst seas of blood that float the sultry zone.'

This is terrible ! but not half so bad as the account which Mr. Pratt gives of the sugar-cane. According to him, it causes slavery ; eats into the heart like poison in disguise, with a degree of art that corrupts the soul ; stings like an asp, and makes Christians, some how or other, for we cannot *make* English of the line ; turn 'her shrine into shambles.' This is, however, but half the abuse with which the poor sugar-cane is overwhelmed. Mr. Pratt, in the violence of his wrath, so far will passion blind and mislead the judgment, tells us, that it is 'dragg'd like vile gold from the *embowell'd* earth :' he confesses it is with *reluctance*, and that 'the groaning nations are bound to taste *its charm*.' And well they may groan : for as through avarice one zone has been already described as 'floated in blood,' this wicked cane causes one half of the human race to be *drowned* in the same liquid. The reader will probably smile, and think that we have exaggerated the absurdity of the passage. To convince him of the contrary, and afford him some farther amusement, we shall subjoin the original, for his perusal.

' Ah ! luscious mischief, slave-creating cane,
 Of every soft humanity the bane :
 Thy venom'd sweet, whose soul-polluting art
 Like some mask'd poison, eats into the heart,
 Sweet tho' thou art, an aspic sting is thine,
 And into shambles, Christians turn thy shrine :
 Thou, like vile gold, from the embowel'd earth,
 By avarice dragg'd reluctantly to birth,
 To taste thy charm are groaning nations bound,
 And half mankind in kindred blood are drown'd !'

This sanguinary kind of metaphor is a great favourite of Mr. Pratt's. In another passage, Commerce is addressed

as failing not only on a ' sanguine flood,' but on a ' red sea of blood' likewise. The ' fatal cane' is again stigmatized; and the author, in the last couplet, grows too angry to attend to grammar.

' Commerce! thou failest on a sanguine flood,
On a red sea of man's devoted blood;
Thy pompous robe, tho' gemm'd as India's store,
Proud, tho' it flows, is dy'd in human gore.
The tears of millions bathe thy fatal cane,
And half thy treasure springs from human pain,
And not an idol on thy altars shine
But human victims stain the crimson shrine!'

Mr. Pratt at length proceeds, in a more dispassionate and philosophic frame of mind, to trace the origin and progress of slavery, till its abolition by the merciful system of Christianity. He enters next into an account of the revival of this disgraceful commerce by the Portuguese and Spaniards, inveighs with equal bitterness, and somewhat more justice, against the inquisition established by the latter, than he did before against the sugar-cane. An investigation of the rights of nature follows, which induces him, after giving an account of the different opinions of people, according to their respective countries, on beauty, figure, colour, &c. to assert the natural equality of mankind. He shews that refinement is frequently the source of vice as well as virtue. He enlarges on the barbarous treatment animals often experience that are destined to the Epicure's table. To their luxurious cruelty, the manners of the mild and humane bramin form a strong and pleasing contrast. As we think Mr. Pratt has been particularly happy in this part of his performance, we shall lay it before our reader.

' Lo, where the Bramins pass their blameless life,
Free from proud culture, free from polish'd strife.
To man, brute, insect, nature's constant friends,
The heart embraces and the hands extends:
See the meek tribe refuse the worm to kill,
No murder feeds them, and no blood they spill;
But crop the living herbage as it grows,
And quaff the living water as it flows,
From the full herds, the milky banquet bear,
And the kind herds repay with pastures fair;
From sanguine man, they drive the game away,
From sanguine man they save the finny prey,
The copious grain they scatter o'er the mead,
The bird to nourish and the beast to feed,
The flowers their couch, their roof the arching trees,
And peaceful nights succeed to days of ease.'

‘O! thou proud Christian, aid fair nature’s grace,
 And catch compassion from the Bramin race:
 Their kind extremes and vegetable fare,
 Their tender maxims, all that breathe to spare:
 Suit not thy cultur’d state, but all should know,
 Like them to save unnecessary woe;
 Like them to give each generous feeling birth,
 And prove the friends not tyrants of the earth.’

An address to humanity, and a view of despotism in despotic states, is followed by an account of our ancestors’ successful contests for the liberty we now enjoy. A character of Alfred, in which are many good lines, and some in which we can find neither grammar nor sense, concludes the first book.

The second book opens with a description of the bastile; from whence the muse makes a sudden excursion into Asia,

‘Where favour’d paradise heav’n-planted, *flood*,
A scene of wonders rising from the flood.’—

Without taking notice of the contradictory terms *flood* and *rising*, we shall barely hint to Mr. Pratt, that had he consulted his Bible, Genesis, chap. ii. he would have found a different account of the formation of paradise, from what he has given. A ‘scene of wonders’ is, indeed, unfolded to us; for we find, in the next lines, that it was

‘The *holy spot* by all the prophets trod,
 Seat of the saints, and sojourn of the God.”

We will, however, give Mr. Pratt the credit to suppose, that in these and other lines that follow to the same effect, he means Asia in general; yet not to mention that the grammatical construction evidently confines this ‘holy spot’ to signify paradise only, the phrase is a very peculiar one, if applied to a quarter of the habitable globe. After having pointed out the fatal effects of despotism in several Asiatic countries, Mr. Pratt takes a trip to Africa, and exemplifies, in various anecdotes, or short narratives, the different virtues possessed by its inhabitants. This leads him to assert again the general equality of mankind, or rather to compare their virtues with those of the more polished Europeans. The different severities which the former experience from the latter, and their modes of retaliation, are next enumerated.

‘Oft spreads his tortur’d slave the secret snare,
 And hurls his master in the last despair,
 Far from his couch the balmy slumber flies,
 And from his slave unnumber’d poisons rise,
 He knows to pest the herd, to blast the soil
 Perish the blossom, and the harvest spoil;

To

To mix the baneful juice, the fatal flower,
This sudden kills, that boasts a mining power,
He knows to scatter unsuspected fate,
While circling mischiefs on his vengeance wait.'

The sentiment in these lines, and others to the same purport follow, is badly expressed, and unsuitable to the genius of the poem. Those who arrogate to themselves the right of avenging their wrongs, are not objects of *humanity*. An address to the little republic of St. Marino, which seems taken from the account given of it in Addison's Travels, follows, and contains many good lines. Some of those, applied to the Canadian Indians soon afterwards, are of a very different nature.

' Wild as their woods behold uncheck'd they go,
For sport or food arm'd simply with the bow,
Save the thin buffalo o'er their shoulders cross,
Their hardy bosoms meet unfenc'd the frost,
The casual chace their banquet and their toil,
They ask'd no bounty from the sullen soil,
If to their prayer to range at large was giv'n,
They thought unbounded liberty was heav'n;
The gods invok'd, their Sylvan wars to aid,
The stag was slain, the boar a captive made,
The female hunters journey'd with the men,
And fearless track'd the monster to his den.'

To go '*uncheck'd* and wild like the woods,' is a very odd comparison; and what '*sport*' or '*food*' can be acquired '*simply* with the bow,' not very obvious. In the two next lines we meet with a combination of faults. First, '*the buffalo*' proves an errant *bull*: for how could *his* being thrown over the shoulders guard the bosom from the cold? With what propriety is the epithet '*thin*' given to so bulky an animal, or even to the skin of it, which we suppose is meant, though the construction by no means warrants it. The invocation of the gods, and thinking '*liberty to be heaven*', is not consonant to the Algonquin system of theology. Nor do the females accompany the men in their hunting expeditions, who are dignified with the following encomium,

' Nature's brave Cæsars and wise Tullys too.'

From the savages of North America our author considers the state of '*Britannia's savage sons*'; the Saxon, Dane, and Norman invasion: a subject that is to be more particularly dwelt upon in the promised publication. Some general encomiums on humanity; the muse's prophecy of *conveying herself* to Africa the joyful tidings of her sons' emancipation; and the testimonies of gratitude they will shew upon the occasion, conclude the poem.—The general tendency of this per-

formance may be gathered from the sketch we have given of it. We might have expatiated more at large on its faults and beauties. From what we have selected, however, the reader may form a tolerable judgment of it, and strike the balance in his own mind.

Dissertation on the Gipsies. Translated from the German, by Matthew Raper, Esq. F. R. S. and S. A. 4to. 10s. 6d. in Boards. Cadell.

THE origin of this peculiar wandering tribe is enveloped in great obscurity. They appeared in the North of Europe early in the fifteenth century; and, almost, at the same period, seemed to spread over every part of it. If we, therefore, derive their origin from the place nearest to that where they were first observed, we should consider Tartary as their native country; for if they came from the south, it is remarkable that they should not have been observed in their progress. Yet with Tartary they have no very great connection: they are fond of horses, they are wanderers; but they are not shepherds; they have not the peculiar features or the language of the Tartars; and their customs are very different. They called themselves *Ægyptians*; but they are a deceitful race, and, as pilgrimages in *Ægypt* were not uncommon; as they were connected with religion, and added greatly to the sanctity of a character in that gloomy enthusiastic age, there is no considerable reliance to be placed on their account, independent of other evidence. Yet their tale has been so uniform and consistent, that it has gained them this name in almost every language of Europe. They are not, however, *Ægyptians* in persons, in manners, or in language; and, if any force is to be allowed to their own account, it is, that they came from *Ægypt* into Europe, not that they were really inhabitants of that country. There is one very striking circumstance, which gives additional weight to this opinion: they appeared almost at the same time in Germany, in Hungary, and Bohemia; so numerous were they in the last district, that by some authors they are called *Bohemians*. If they are spoken of first by the northern historians, it does not follow, in that rude age, that they only first appeared there. They are mentioned when they attracted the attention of government, or of the police; and if they are found by this means in 1417 on the north sea, they are distinguished in Germany in 1418. If, therefore, we suppose the tribe to have embarked in the occasional trading vessels from *Ægypt*, they would have proceeded to different parts of the Mediterranean, the extremities of the Adriatic and the Black Sea, and have appeared in many different kingdoms very nearly at the same time. So that their appearance

gives

gives force to their tale, and it remains to be examined how they came to *Ægypt*, since they are not *Ægyptians*.

If we survey the neighbourhood of *Ægypt*, we shall first consider them as Nubians, Abyssinians, or Arabians. Their shape and their language contradicts the last origin, and their customs, so far as we are acquainted with them, the others. In reality, their customs, their manners, and their language, are found only on the Malabar coast, in the lowest class of the *Sunders*. Their emigration seems, from our present author, to have been occasioned by the ravages of Timur Beg, in India, which happened in 1408 and 1409. The higher classes attached to their country, which they thought the only habitation of men, submitted to the oppression. The lower class could not be depressed any farther; they sought their safety in flight, and where could they go better than where their various merchandizes were carried? What route could they more properly pursue than that of their merchants? What means more safe than either to accompany the caravans over the desert, or to embark on that sea which afforded a passage to their countrymen? In either instance they would arrive in *Ægypt*, and furnish another fact to shew how much that country has received from the East, and again sent out as her own.

This is nearly the system and the opinions of M. Grellmann, who with great labour and industry has examined and described the manners of this singular people. We shall add some account of his investigations, which have novelty and entertainment, since no connected and rational account, so far as we recollect, has been hitherto given of this nomadic hord.

Our author begins with a description of their various appellations, which is generally *Ægyptians*, or a term corrupted from this title. *Cingari*, or words of a similar sound, are said to be of Indian origin; and their title of *Bohemians* arises from the great numbers which are found in that country. Their dispersion in Europe is very extensive. In Hungary, Bohemia, and Spain, they are remarkably numerous. In their constitutions they are firm and active; their shape is handsome, their eyes black and sprightly, their complexion fallow. A colder climate has given them strength; fatigue and hardships have hardened their bodies, and rendered them insensible to cold and hunger; yet their minds retain the levity of children, the deceit of vagabonds, and the indolence of the East, from whence they sprung. Cloaths they are indifferent about; their food is carrion, often raw and not unfrequently putrid. That they are cannibals our author has not proved, and we have reason to think the imputation without foundation. There was undoubtedly a time when many nations were so; but it was the period

period of ignorance, of a brutal insensibility. When reason begins to dawn, the horror of this practice is at once conspicuous. Even when it has been retained as a religious institution, it has been done in the most profound secrecy. On the other hand it is impossible to prove a negative : we know not what a gipsy urged by hunger, secure of concealment, with little feeling, and no religion to interpose, might be induced to do. We wish only to rescue them from the disgrace which would attend the infamy, if it were supposed that this was an occasional or a frequent practice. Their drink is water, and brandy at their festivals. In their passion for ornaments, they do not consult propriety or uniformity : they will wear an old laced coat, while the rest of their garments scarcely hang together. Their houses are holes in the ground, or the meanest hovels ; their establishments suitable to their other appearance. They are very dextrous in deceiving as jockeys ; and they are smiths with little assistance from instruction or art. Their tools are very bad ; but, with them, in little attempts, they succeed beyond expectation. In Transylvania they are gold-washers : in Hungary they are executioners and slayers : in every country they are necromancers and cheats. Their education, their marriages, and their births, are such as may be expected from a wandering tribe with little reflection. Sicknes, their robust constitution enables them to avoid ; but death must at last reach them ; and they die with as little sensibility as they lived.

They have a little political regulation among themselves, but of religion they are wholly void ; nor do they believe that there is any existence, or any world beyond the present. Of their character and capacities M. Grellmann must speak, in his own words.

‘ Imagine people of a childish way of thinking ; their minds filled with raw, undigested conceptions ; guided more by sense than reason ; using understanding and reflection so far only as they promote the gratification of any particular appetite ; and you have a perfect sketch of the gipsies character.

They are lively, uncommonly loquacious and chattering ; fickle in the extreme, consequently inconstant in their pursuits, faithless to every body, even their own cast ; void of the least emotion of gratitude, frequently rewarding benefits with the most insidious malice. Fear makes them slavishly compliant when under subjection, but having nothing to apprehend, like other timorous people, they are cruel. Desire of revenge often causes them to take the most desperate resolutions. To such a degree of violence is their fury sometimes excited, that a mother has been known, in the excess of passion, to take her small infant by the feet, and therewith strike the object of her anger, when no other instrument has readily presented itself. They are so addicted to drink-

drinking, as to sacrifice what is most necessary to them, that they may feast their palate with spirits. They have too, what one would little expect, an enormous share of vanity, which shews itself in their fondness for fine cloaths, and their gait and deportment when dressed in them. One might imagine, that this pride would have the good effect, to render a gipsy cautious, not to be guilty of such crimes as subject him to public shame; but here comes in the levity of character, for he never looks to the right nor to the left in his transactions. In an hour's time he forgets that he is just untied from the whipping post. But their pride is grounded on mere triviality, as appears plainly from their making it a point of honour, to abuse their companions, and put on a terrible appearance, in the public market, where they are sure to have many spectators, they cry out, make a violent noise, challenge their adversary to fight, but very seldom any thing comes of it. Thus the gipsy seeks honour, of which his ideas coincide very little with those of other people, sometimes deviate entirely from propriety; therefore, I shall not be guilty of any contradiction, in now asserting, what every one, who has made observations on these people, agrees in, viz. that honour or shame are indifferent to them. This decision holds good, if we compare gipsy notions with our own; trying their dealings and conduct by this standard, they will often appear ridiculous, frequently even infamous.'

Though without courage, they have been made soldiers, and when mixed with steady troops, they are said to have been sometimes useful. Behind batteries they have even for a time appeared to be brave. Our author thinks that it is impossible to exterminate them by banishment. He aims rather at their reformation and incorporation with society; but while they are insensible of religion and strongly attached to their own manners, we fear the attempt will be impracticable. Let us attend to a very intelligent Hungarian lady's experience on the subject.

' There are a great number of them on my estates, but I have permitted two families in particular, to establish themselves at the place of my own residence, under the express condition, that no others shall come here and join them. I took all possible pains to make them reasonable creatures. I set the elder ones to work; the younger ones tend the cattle. I observed that they were more fond of horses than any thing else; for which reason I placed a gipsy under each groom. I had their children cloathed, that none of them might be running about naked, according to their usual practice. It appeared, however, that custom was become nature with them. The old ones worked diligently, so long as any body stood over them; the moment their back was turned, they all got together in a circle, their legs across, facing the sun, and chattered. Thus they cannot possibly earn more, indeed hardly so much, as would find them bread, although very cheap with us; for the bread I give them
does

does not stand me in half a kreutzer the pound. Even in winter they cannot bear a hat on their head, nor shoes on their feet. The boys run like wild things, wherever they are sent, either on foot or on horseback; but they spoil horses unmercifully, beat them on the head, jerk the bits in their mouths, so as to make them run down with blood. They cannot be brought by any means whatever, to dress horses. Cloath them as you will, they always sell or lose their cloaths. In a word, one cannot but consider them as void of reason; it is really shocking to see even well grown children, put whatever they find into their mouths, like infants before they can speak; wherefore they eat every thing, even carrion, let it stink never so much. Where a mortality happens among the cattle, there these wretched beings are to be found in the greatest numbers.'

The second part of this work contains an account of their origin: this we have already given an abstract of. The numerous words of the Hindostan language, compared in this second part with the gipsy vocabulary, give great force to the author's opinion. It is not, however, quite new: we had occasion to glance at it some time ago.*

We have perused this work with much pleasure, and can consequently recommend it to our readers, as containing much uncommon information, drawn from the most respectable authorities with the most patient and exact attention. The translator apologises for little defects; and he will permit us to observe, that we should have met with pleasure less alloyed, if he had polished his language with more care, and not followed his author with such a scrupulous verbal fidelity.

A System of Surgery. By Benjamin Bell. Vol. VI. Illustrated with Copper-plates. 8vo. 6s. 6d. in Boards. Robinsons.

MR. Bell's work is at last completed; and we receive the conclusion of a system of modern surgery, not less distinguished for its accuracy than its perspicuity, with considerable pleasure. The author means to add to his succeeding editions, the various improvements which shall occur; and with a becoming attention to the interests of the public, from which he has received such liberal encouragement, he purposes to publish the additions in a separate form, for the advantage of the purchasers of the former editions.

The great objects of the author, in this last volume, are fractures, luxations, and amputations. These he has treated of at length, in all their varieties, and with their different improvements. Simple fractures are managed with no little skill, according to the best systems: in the account of the fracture of the patella, however, our author does not mention M. Sabatier's

* Crit. Rev. Vol. LX. p. 285.

method, which we noticed in our review of the memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences. On compound fractures our author's observations are very correct: he differs greatly from M. Bilguer. In private practice, where conveniencies abound, it is possible, he thinks, often to save the limb; but in the army amputation is generally necessary, in any considerable compound fracture, except it occurs in an officer, who can be removed from the hurry of war, be attended to with care, and watched with an anxious solicitude. Amputation succeeds, in Mr. Bell's opinion, better in the advanced than the early stages, whether employed in compound fractures, or in chronic complaints. There are, perhaps, many circumstances, in which this delay is inadmissible. Mr. Bell takes no notice of a method which has been recommended in compound fractures, to reduce the protruded bone, and to bind up the whole leg, with a conglutinating dressing, confine the discharges, and trust the cure to nature. We have seen it succeed; but compound fractures, except when attended with circumstances peculiarly unfortunate, are not now very formidable occurrences.

We shall select, as a specimen of our author's judgment, his opinion on one part of the subject of luxations, which we lately noticed as a neglect in a modern author.

'Practitioners are not agreed whether in cases of luxation the capsular ligaments are ruptured or not. As it has appeared on dissection, in a few instances, that the ligament was ruptured, some have concluded that it is the case in all; while others are of opinion, that the ligament always remains entire, except where the luxation has been the consequence of very severe and unusual degrees of violence.

'The result of my observation on this point is, that partial luxations may happen without any rupture of the capsular ligament: but that it is always ruptured in complete luxations produced by external violence; nay, that it is often almost entirely tore from its insertion round the neck of the bone. Where the head of a bone is gradually pushed from its socket by a slow formation of a tumor within the joint, and where the ligament is perhaps much relaxed by disease, a luxation may no doubt happen without either rupture or laceration; but we cannot suppose that such a firm substance as a ligament is in a state of health, will yield, without bursting, to the sudden impulse produced by the complete dislocation of the head of a bone, and where the displaced bone is in some cases almost instantaneously forced to the distance of several inches from its natural situation. Different instances are upon record of this opinion being supported by the dissection of dislocated joints after death; and were it necessary, I could add others that have fallen within my own observation.'

In general, the method of treating luxations is well explained; and, as an appendix to this subject, our author adds some
remarks

remarks on distorted limbs and a distortion of the spine. Distorted limbs seem to have claimed much of Mr. Bell's attention, but he adds little to our knowledge. Distorted spine and the paralysis which follows it, is a disease of great importance. Our author does not seem to speak with sufficient respect of the caustics; but indeed the operation of any remedy is exceedingly precarious, where nature, unassisted, frequently exerts herself to so much advantage.

Amputation is the next subject; and our author's opinion of the period best adapted to the operation in mortification, is very judicious. He thinks it should be performed as soon as the mortification is fairly stopped: we would indeed advise it as soon as a separation appears to take place, for that is the proper index that the constitution has succeeded in the contest: this seems also to be very nearly Mr. Bell's opinion. The various methods of performing it are very correctly explained.

The forty-fourth chapter is on the removing the ends of bones in diseases of the joints, and Mr. Park's proposal to remove entire joints, when affected with a white swelling or any other disease, instead of amputating. A dreadful alternative! Mr. Bell leaves the determination of the propriety of the attempt to future experience; but we fear, perhaps we hope, that such dreadful experiments will not often be repeated.

A proper appendage to amputations is Mr. Moore's proposal for diminishing pain in chirurgical operations. His remarks are abridged in this volume, but Mr. Bell offers no opinion on the subject. The only operations of midwifery, treated of, are the Cæsarean section, and the division of the symphysis of the pubes. The last, in Mr. Bell's opinion, is not likely to succeed, in enlarging the pelvis in that way, where its narrowness is most detrimental to delivery: yet he thinks it should be tried even in preference to the crotchet, if it be found useful in all cases of narrow pelvis. We may add, that from some late publications on the continent, this seems to be the opinion of the French surgeons. The method of opening of dead bodies, and the operation of embalming, are also described, though very concisely.

This volume concludes with general directions for the application of bandages, and a description of the plates. The directions are general only, because, as is properly observed, experience can best teach the art; yet they are sufficiently clear and pointed, and are illustrated by engravings. The plates in this volume are thirty in number, and in the former ones there are sixty-nine. We have already spoken of their general merit, and we meet with no improvements in their execution. We

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now take our leave of Mr. Bell, whose successive volumes we have announced early, and examined with care. We have told him freely of his faults and merits, and we leave him with our good wishes.

The Microcosm, a periodical Work. By Gregory Griffin. The Second Edition. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Robinsons.

IT was humorously remarked, that the Connoisseur, the censor-general of Great Britain, was often censured by his tutor for the apparent idleness of those hours which he devoted to the instruction of his countrymen; and, while he kept the town in awe by his animadversions, he was himself scolded for the neglect of his own business. We know not whether Mr. Gregory Griffin, in his little Microcosm, might not have felt the same inconvenience; and, while he dictated to the world, might have found that there was a superior dictator; there were prætors, and perhaps lictors. The assistant directors of an *Eton* education; for we must not, we find, call them ushers, might have thought, that our young gentlemen were not well employed, if, in the design of instructing others, they had neglected their own tasks. But, if we descend from fellow-commoners to school boys for entertainment and instruction, we must express our satisfaction that the task has fallen into so good hands. Perhaps no one, in their situations, could have succeeded so well; few, in any line, could have succeeded much better.

We must not look, in these letters, for intricate disquisitions, deep reflections on the conduct of life and manners, or even a varied contexture of adventures. The language is, however, sufficiently elegant; the reflections generally just, the knowledge, both of books and classical literature, not inconsiderable; and the humour well supported, without descending too low, or being carried to an improper length. The solemn dullness of the critics is often happily ridiculed; and, though it has been often laughed at before, we can laugh again with our young authors, at some of their pleasant sallies. In this collection the different papers are appropriated; and we find that the chief authors (we to record their names with pleasure) are Messrs. J. and R. Smith, Mr. Canning, and Mr. Erere. But they must introduce themselves: they do it with much propriety; and may their first attempt at invention be prophetic. We would, indeed, say of their whole work, 'Sit felix faustumque.'

'When the respectable names of the Spectator, the Guardian, or the Rambler recur to our memory, we start, and are astonished at the presumption of a puny authorling, who dares,
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at so early an age, tread in the steps of these heroes of wit and literature. No one can suppose, that it is my intention to affect to rival these illustrious predecessors. All that I can claim is a sincere desire of executing that design in a narrower sphere, which they sustained with such applause in the wider theatre of the world. My ambition I hope is not illaudable; and if an apology is necessary for so early an attempt, I can plead the great examples both of ancient and modern learning: Virgil and Pope produced their pastorals long before the one became the glory of Rome as her epick poet, or the other of Britain, as her philosopher and satirist; if these examples are objected to, as more peculiar to poetry than prose, Cicero's *Treatise de Inventione* was the juvenile efforts of that mind, which was in future time to point the thunders of its eloquence against the betrayers of their country: to crush the audacious villainy of a Catiline; or strip the deep hypocrisy of an Antony of its specious covering. If the above mentioned compositions were only the preludes to the greater glories of a riper age, may not I, without incurring the charge of too much presumption, try the feeblèr efforts of my genius, and by degrees attempt to accustom myself to undertakings of a more trying and arduous nature.'

'I consider the scene before me as a microcosm, a world in miniature, where all the passions which agitate the great original, are faithfully pourtrayed on a smaller scale; in which the endless variety of character, the different lights and shades which the appetites, or peculiar situations throw us into, begin to discriminate, and expand themselves. The curious observer may here remark in the bud the different casts and turns of genius, which will in future strongly characterize the leading features of the mind. He may see the embryo statesman, who hereafter may wield and direct at pleasure the mighty and complex system of European politics, now employing the whole extent of his abilities to circumvent his companions at their plays, or adjusting the important differences which may arise between the contending heroes of his little circle; or a general, the future terror of France and Spain, now the dread only of his equals, and the undisputed lord and president of the boxing-ring. The Grays and Wallers of the rising generation here tune their little lyres; and he, who hereafter may sing the glories of Britain, must first celebrate at Eton the smaller glories of his college.'

Our authors, however, start from their first design, with a bold disorder, and from the circle of boys advance to the haunts of men. But they seem not wholly inexperienced; and, even where they copy from books, they have the address to make the copy look like an original. As it is not easy to give any general account of the subject of these papers, whether it be '*Quicquid agunt pueri,*' or '*Quicquid agunt homines,*' we shall extract a passage or two of different kinds.

Our young critics, with some boldness, and great justice, attack a passage in the *Adventurer*, where the splendor of names has carried the author to an improper length, and led him into chronological error.

‘I refer the reader to the 127th paper, 4th vol. of the *Adventurer*, from whence the following is extracted, “The age will never again return, when a Pericles, after walking with Plato in a portico built by Phidias, and painted by Apelles, might repair to hear a pleading of Demosthenes, or a tragedy of Sophocles.”

‘Unless this passage is more accurately considered, it seems to give the decisive turn against the moderns; and presents a formidable list of great names to which we have but few to oppose. But if we examine the chronological order we shall find, that Pericles, Phidias, and Sophocles, were hardly contemporaries, Pericles dying in the 87th Olympiad; but Demosthenes, who was contemporary with Apelles, did not pronounce his first Philippic till the 107th, and Plato died in the 108th. The reader who would wish to know the more particular dates, I refer to Tallent’s chronology, who has regulated his by Scaliger’s tables.—From this it will appear, that though a Pericles might have walked in a portico built by Phidias, it could not have been painted by Apelles; and though he might have heard a tragedy of Sophocles, he could not have conversed with Plato, or repaired to a pleading of Demosthenes. I might with equal justice say, the time will never return, when an Alfred, after walking with Bacon in a portico built by Wren, or painted by West, might repair to hear a speech of Chatham’s, or a tragedy of Shakespeare’s. Surely this is an unfair mode of comparison, and to take a hint from his own motto,

Si veteres ita miratur laudatque,
Ut nihil anteferat, nihil illis comparet, errat.’

Even if the author of this dissected passage had looked nearer home, he might, with more justice, have said, ‘We shall not perhaps again soon see an age, when a Murray, after walking with Johnson and Franklin, in a temple built by Jones and painted by Reynolds, might repair to hear a speech of Pitt, to see the *Macbeth* of Shakspeare represented by Garrick. The chorus is more full; the climax is more complete; and future ages, for these will be the classics of other days, will consider the representation as equally just, without, at least, a chronological error.

The mock criticism on the epic poem, as our authors style it, the ‘*Reformation of the Knave of Hearts*,’ has several very apt and judicious parodies in it. The remarks are frequently pointed, and generally just: we are sorry that we have not room for an extract of this humorous kind. The following character is drawn with much precision, and great beauty.

VOL. LXVI. *July*, 1788.

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‘ Even at this early period (when at Eton) the natural warmth of his disposition had begun to display itself. Open, candid, and generous, his heart was the constant companion of his hand, and his tongue the artless index of his mind. As his ideas expanded, his virtues seemed to have acquired a larger scope; and the unsuspecting generosity which had before induced him heedlessly to deposit his joys and griefs with every stranger, to have been matured into a warm philanthropic benevolence for human nature, and a romantic attachment to the few who were the more immediate objects of his affections. Exposed alike to the attacks of all the generous passions, the impetuous sallies of his temper were as easily suppressed as excited. Jealous in the extreme of obligations, and keenly sensitive in any point which appealed to his honour or compassion, he was always a stranger to the calm serenity of a virtuous mind; and ultimately overwhelmed by those feelings which are so often the pleasing curse of a luxuriant imagination.

‘ To these qualifications of the heart, Frederic added the endowments of an elegant fancy; often indeed too impatient of the necessary restrictions of art, but naturally corrected by so pure a taste, as to enable him to discern, with admirable perspicuity, the limits of true and false beauty; and those of his classical compositions which peculiarly struck his ideas, united that vivid, energetic glow of thought, which true genius alone can conceive, to a simple chastity of expression which only correct judgment can define. As an agreeable polish to so much intrinsic merit, his countenance was lively and animated, his figure genteel, and his manners engaging.’

As we have transcribed many passages of different kinds, we should now wish to conclude our article with some commendations, and a few critical remarks. But we have already anticipated the former; and, when we consider the situation of our young authors, and the very few inconsiderable objections which occur, we would not wish to depress their aspiring genius by the latter. The space which might be allotted to the display of our own accuracy and perspicacity we shall rather employ in describing their own sentiments on the generally inadequate rewards of literary merit. While they show somewhat of the aspiring confidence of youth, they are not deficient in the cooler firmness, the more manly resignation of maturer age.

‘ This review of the unmerited treatment of the illustrious, seems calculated to damp the ardour of those, who, even now are panting for fame and glory. Far be it from me to attempt to check one generous emotion, to stifle one spark of rising ambition. Upon those who have a taste for true glory, and strength of mind sufficient to encounter the dangers incident to the pursuit of it, this consideration will have no influence; they will know what they have to encounter, and despise the efforts

efforts of that envy, over which their final triumph is certain. It is better surely that they should be forewarned of the perils of their undertakings, and not be elated with the hopes of an immediate success, in the pursuit of which they will meet certain disappointment; and in the despair of which disappointment, they may relinquish their hopes at the moment they have surmounted the difficulties they had to struggle with. Let them remember, that persecution, though it has often been the lot, is not the necessary consequence of merit. It is the boast of England, that she has not only raised the monument to Wolfe or Chatham when dead, but also acknowledged and rewarded their virtues when living.'

A Tour in England and Scotland, in 1785. By an English Gentleman. 8vo. 5s. 6d. Robinsons.

SCotland, since the publication of Mr. Pennant's Tour, has received several visitors from the South, some of whom have followed the track, but almost all have endeavoured to imitate the manner of that candid, agreeable, and entertaining traveller. The author now before us appears to be a candidate for the same praise; and he is not indeed without good pretensions for obtaining it. His excursion commenced from Oxford, on the 17th of May, 1785, from which place he set out with a train of philosophical reflections on the public benefits resulting from that, and the other venerable seats of learning, which have illumined the world with the rays of science. The route which the traveller pursues is by Stratford upon Avon, Birmingham, and Litchfield; in his account of the last of which towns, he gives the following anecdotes of Johnson.

Litchfield is a small city well built and pleasantly situated. The cathedral is small but very ancient, and remarkable for its three spires, two of which are at the west end, and one nearly in the centre. There are no manufactures in this city: but it is the residence of some genteel families, with middling independent fortunes. This was the birth-place of Dr. Samuel Johnson, of whom so much has been said, that it is but little that can remain for the curiosity of its greatest admirers. I was informed of two singularities in this great genius, which, I think, have escaped the researches of all his biographers. There is a great iron ring fixed by a staple in a stone, in the centre of the market-place, which formerly served as a necessary instrument in the savage diversion of bull-baiting. When Johnson happened in his walks, (for he paid an annual visit to Litchfield) to pass by this spot, he would frequently, in the midst of those reveries in which he seemed to be involved, step aside, and, stooping down, lay hold of the ring and pull it about, as if he had been trying whether he was able to extricate it from the stone in which it was fixed. The other remarkable particular concerning Dr. Johnson, which has not been

mentioned by his numerous biographers, is, that he made it a point when he made his annual visit to the place of his nativity, to call on every person in that city with whom he had the least acquaintance; but that the instant he knocked at the door, he would, without giving time for opening it, pass on to another, where he would do the same thing; so that it frequently happened, that two or three servants would be running after the doctor, requesting that he would return to their masters or mistresses houses, who waited to receive him. The people of Litchfield were long, I avoid speaking in the present time, strongly tinged with Jacobitism. When the Pretender, at the head of some Highland clans, had marched, in 1745 into Lancashire, the inhabitants of Litchfield, it is said, waited for his arrival there, in his progress to the capital, with impatience. The profound reverence that Johnson entertained for monarchical principles, and hierarchical establishments, was in perfect conformity, and perhaps originally derived from the genius that predominated in the place of his nativity.

‘A very singular club is held annually at Litchfield of females only. It consists of an hundred members and upwards; and, however extraordinary this meeting may appear, yet it seems to have been established from the best of motives, for I have been informed that a considerable sum of money is annually collected and distributed among the poor of the city. About a mile from Litchfield is Barrow-cope Hill, remarkable for being the burying-place of three Saxon kings who were slain in battle.’

The author afterwards directs his course by Derby, Matlock, Buxton, Manchester, and Liverpool, which he describes as extremely flourishing. The prospect from Kirby-Lonsdale is mentioned with particular admiration.

‘Kirby-Lonsdale (says he) is a neat well built little town, situated on an eminence; and the river Loon runs close beneath it, through a rich and well cultivated vale. The adjacent and lower hills are finely covered with wood; and behind these, high and craggy mountains are presented to our view, destitute of trees, and of every kind of vegetation or verdure. The contrast between the bold and barren rocks, on the one hand, and the verdant woods and luxuriant vale, on the other, heightens the rude majesty of the former, improves the swelling softness, and the richness of the latter, and on the whole, forms the most delightful view I ever beheld.’

About a mile from Bowness, the travellers dismount from their horses, and ascend a hill covered with craggy rocks, which commands a view that exceeds all description. From this point is seen the greater part of the Windermere Lake, and ten islands; a prospect which has already been celebrated by many travellers. The margin of this lake is surrounded with rich meadows, fertile hills, and beautiful woods, with

perpendicular precipices, and old yews and hollies growing out of the fissures of the craggy rocks; all of them so curiously mixed, and reflecting their images so clearly in the transparent expanse below, that it would be difficult, the author says, to conceive how nature herself could form a more captivating scene.

On the 19th of June, the traveller enters Scotland from Carlisle, and passes on to Annan, Dumfries, and Glasgow, in which route we meet with a variety of picturesque objects. Of those places which are fast improving, Paisley is the most remarkable.

‘The town of Paisley is near two miles long, and the new part of it, which has been built within these five years, contains many very good houses, built of free-stone. The principal manufacturers are sixteen in number, seven English and nine Scotch. Many of these have made considerable fortunes, set up their carriages, and built in the neighbourhood of the town, elegant country-houses.

‘Many houses in Paisley pay, in wages to journeymen weavers, women and children, 500l. a week. The carriage of new gauze patterns from London to this place, by the coach and waggons, costs 500l. a year. A fertile country, cheap labour, a sober and steady people, abundance of coal and water carriage, were the circumstances which invited English manufacturers to settle in this country; and the justness of their views has been fully evinced by the most prosperous success.’

Our author continues his journey Northward, by the beautiful Loch-Lomond to Inverary, the seat of the duke of Argyle, near which he passes the original domains of the family of Breadalbane, whose charming residence at Taymouth he mentions in terms of admiration.

In visiting the various lakes and arms of the sea, on the west coast, the author has not been inattentive to the project of improving the fisheries; on which subject he suggests a plan that highly merits the consideration of the society.

The traveller had intended to visit the Hebrides, but relinquishing that design, he proceeds along the lakes and over the mountains to Inverness, which forms the northern boundary of his excursion. From this place to Aberdeen, he seems to have pursued his journey with less than his usual observation. But he compensates for this defect, by his account of that city, and in particular of its two universities. Shaping his course thence, by Stonehaven and Inverbervie, along a coast highly cultivated, he proceeds to Montrose, which, like other recent travellers, he describes as in a flourishing state. The vicinity of Perth affords subject for much curious recital; as do likewise,

for description, the banks of the Ern ; and for observation, the town and castle of Stirling. Before leaving this majestic situation, the author introduces an account of the Highlanders, from Mr. Cunningham's history ; but however agreeable may be the digression, we cannot commend the author's translation of that episodical narrative, either for fidelity or elegance. He remarks, that the writer above mentioned, in his sketch of the Highlanders, makes not the least mention of their passionate love and genius for music, as well as the kindred strains of moving, though simple poetry. The remote Highlanders, the traveller affirms, are at this day as fond of poetry and music as the ancient Arcadians.

‘ Throughout the whole of the Highlands (says he) there are at this day, various songs sung by the women to suitable airs, or played on musical instruments, not only on occasions of merriment and diversion, but also during almost every kind of work which employs more than one person, such as milking cows, watching the folds, fulling of cloth, grinding of grain with the *quern* or hand-mill, hay-making, and reaping of corn. These songs and tunes re-animate, for a time, the drooping labourer, and make him work with redoubled ardour. In travelling through the Highlands, in the season of autumn, the sounds of little bands of music on every side, joined to a most romantic scenery, has a very pleasing effect on the mind of a stranger.’

Our author's account of the Highlanders is succeeded by a view of the changes which have happened in the political state of Scotland ; first from the union, and afterwards from the abolition of heritable jurisdictions in 1747 ; the former of which events was favourable to the prosperity, and the latter to the freedom of the people.

After taking an ample survey of the Scottish metropolis, the traveller continues his route southward, until, entertaining us with a view of the ancient kingdom of Northumberland, he concludes the narrative.

This author adopts the peculiarity which we remarked in Mr. Pennant, of dropping the nominative pronoun before the verb, when speaking of himself. This is an abrupt manner of avoiding egotism, and is not reconcileable with grammatical accuracy. In other respects, the style of this author is seldom liable to reprehension ; and the tour contains not only much agreeable description, but many judicious observations. It is likewise accompanied with a number of engravings of the objects most interesting to curiosity.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C A L.

Anecdotes of Junius: to which is prefixed the King's Reply. 8vo.
1s. 6d. Bew.

Our author is not in the secret. Who may have assumed the signature of Junius, we cannot say; but it certainly was not the author of the 'origin of our ideas on the sublime and beautiful': it pretty clearly was not a partizan of the late marquis of Rockingham. In his list of reviewers he is equally erroneous. The king's answer has no particular merit: it is attributed by our author, we suspect, to the marquis of Lansdown; but the style is very similar to the rest of the pamphlet; and the marquis would not have mistaken so egregiously respecting Junius. The secret has been well kept, and indeed it was necessary: when Junius is no more, we shall probably know who he was.—Till that period, curiosity must remain unsatisfied.

Letters Patent, establishing a Supreme Court of Judicature at Fort William, in Bengal. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

The attention of the public being much occupied with Indian affairs, it occurred that an account of the supreme tribunal in that country would not be unacceptable; and with this view, we imagine, the patent has been reprinted.

Letter from M. Lambert, Comptroller-general of the French Finances, to Mr. Jefferson, Minister Plenipotentiary for the United States of America, at the Court of Versailles. 1s. Johnson.

By this treaty the American States have obtained, from the court of France, very important commercial advantages. Their whale and cod fisheries, in particular, are to receive great indulgence; grain, timber, and various other American products, are to pay only a trifling duty, though imported in American bottoms. The French promise to real American adventurers, all the advantages which themselves enjoy in the Levant and the East Indies, as well as the islands in the course of the navigation to that quarter. American-built vessels are likewise to obtain the rights of native French vessels, not only when bought by Frenchmen any where, but when sold to any persons in France. These are such extraordinary inducements to a commerce with France, as must render that country, during the continuance of the treaty, the great repository of American products in Europe. What compensation France expects for those liberal concessions, is a point concerning which the *arret* is totally silent.

P O E T R Y.

The Deserter. A Poem. 4to. 1s 6d. Faulder,

A lamentable tale most lamentably told.

Tales and Fables. 4to. 2s. 6d. Hookham.

The Tales, and most of the Fables (such as they are) appear to be original. The others are imitated from the French, chiefly of *Dorat*, neither one nor the other are entitled to commendation.

England's Heroical Epistles, by Michael Drayton, with Notes and Illustrations. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Johnson.

The editor observes, in his advertisement, that it is difficult to assign a reason why Michael Drayton should be so much neglected; but how does it appear that he is so? A complete edition of his works in folio, handsomely printed, and adorned with copper-plates, came out in 1748; and we apprehend, there are few people fond of poetical composition, but have seen or heard of it. The heroical epistles constitute but a small part. An argument is here prefixed to each, and a few notes, of no great consequence, added to some of those given by Drayton, who professes his having inserted them 'because the work might, in truth, be judged *brainish*, if nothing but amorous matter were handled therein.' A short life of the author is annexed.

Prolusiones Poeticæ; or, A Selection of Poetical Exercises, in Greek, Latin, and English. 8vo. 3s. 6d. in Boards. Fletcher at Chester.

This little collection of juvenile poems is dedicated to the bishop of Chester by Mr. Bancroft, the master, as we suppose, of the king's-school in that city; of which seminary these are mentioned as 'the first literary first-fruits,' and in general, they do much credit to the young gentlemen by whom they were written.

The Socinian Champion; or, Priestleyan Divinity: a Poem. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Buckland.

The mysteries of religion afford not proper subjects for wit. Yet our author possesses some humour, and on other subjects might deserve our commendation. His apology for the exercise of this talent is not very applicable; but we shall insert it as a specimen.

' Pray who is he that gravely cries,
With solemn face and low'ring eyes,
" 'Tis wrong to use luxuriant wit,
And sportive satire's darts, to hit
A sage divine, a reverend name,
Whose tracts a learned answer claim:
'Tis wrong, in a sarcastic style,
On reader's face to raise a smile,
When subjects of a serious kind
Employ our calm attentive mind."
Yes, Master Grave, 'tis wrong indeed
To make reveal'd religion bleed,
And madly fight against the Lord,
With satire's shafts, or learning's sword;

But

But is it therefore, pray, a crime
 To combat men's mistakes in rhyme—
 T' encounter heresy in metre,
 And with sarcastic sneer to treat her?
 No; strip the wretch, and make her howl,
 With satire's scourge, through all her soul:
 What fitter arms can be employ'd
 'Gainst creeds that make the scripture void?
 In wounding error to the heart,
 Can we discharge too keen a dart?
 Or must that foe be gently treated,
 Who murders truth with blows repeated?"

N O V E L S.

Features from Life; or, a Summer Visit. By the Author of George Bateman and Maria. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Kearsley.

The author has sketched an outline from fashionable features, and delineated the conjugal misfortunes which arise from the fascination of novelty, joined to a want of confidence. Her outline may be, and we believe is real; but it is coloured by fancy, and sometimes finished unequally. The character of Needham is by no means suitable to his description; and the interesting softness, and the undeserved misfortunes of Mrs. Neville, should have received more attention. Yet, whether we consider the language and the sentiments, the fair author's powers of description, or the strength and justness of her reflections, this novel must stand high in our esteem. The family of Williams is well described, and will please, even though the author has followed Goldsmith in his Vicar of Wakefield.—The little account of Butler's birth-place, at Strensham, is characteristic and entertaining: we shall transcribe it.

'Is there any thing curious in the house itself?' asked lady Gaythorne. 'Nothing at all,' replied Mrs. Neville, 'it is a low-roofed, thatched cottage, which was the property of Butler's father:—a piece of ground that belongs to it is still called Butler's close. I visited the little dwelling this morning, (for the first time since my childhood), with a high degree of enthusiastic pleasure. A poor cottager lives in one part of it; the other is uninhabited, and quite out of repair. The largest room is a tolerable sized kitchen. Here, (thought I, as I stood beside the fire-place, looking at some old brick-work, which sufficiently spoke the antiquity of the building), Here sat, after the labours of a toilsome day, the respectable yeoman;—there the contented companion of his industry. Imagination instantly painted a groupe of happy faces in each of the wide-extended, social chimney-corners: the principal figure stands forward with a boldness of relief that rivets attention; not distinguished by outward garb, or high-bred graces: but by the flexible features of genuine humour, and the sparkling glances of pointed wit. The moral tale goes round; the 'crack-
 ling

ling faggot blazes on the chearful hearth.' I listen to the arch commentaries of the youthful satirist on the little transactions of the village; the comic allusions that fall from him in language, quaint, yet picturesque! I see the ludicrous, the vivid images his sportive fancy raises! and I feel the little dome shake with the unrestrained burst of rustic laughter!

There is great delicacy, and much merit, in the account of a true passion, in volume first; and this, added to some other little circumstances, has led us to suspect, that the lady has changed her name. George Bateman, Maria, and the Features before us, have risen in the scale of merit; each subsequent production having exceeded its predecessor.

Frederic; or, the Libertine. 2 Vol. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

The train of adventures in these volumes is amusing, and not wholly destitute of probability. The language is sufficiently correct, and poetical justice is dispensed with tolerable propriety. There is, however, little positive merit in other respects. The reflections are jejune and trifling; the adventures a literary patch-work, from different volumes of modern histories; and the characters hackneyed in the pages of the novellists.

Mary; a Fiction. 12mo. 3s. Johnson.

This is no common work. Various observations evince a pretty considerable acquaintance with different subjects; and these are not impertinently obtruded, but occur seemingly without design. The story is confessedly a fiction. The author seems to aim at imitating Rousseau, and draws the picture of a strong, but ill-regulated mind: he paints religion, growing into superstition; imagination, taking the reins from judgment; benevolence, without adequate objects; and love, in circumstances that should forbid it. This arises from the mind's wandering without a director, from its following the best propensities without a guide to regulate them, or to direct the distributions of which they are the parents.

It is 'an artless tale, without episodes: the mind of a woman who has thinking powers are displayed.' If it were designed to show that their minds want sufficient force, our author has not acted very judiciously. Equally neglected in education, few men could have done so much: we could not easily find one that would have done more. It is, however, a pleasing tale: those who are fond of developing the minute traits of the human mind, will find in 'Mary' a source of some reflection.

D I V I N I T Y.

The Oeconomy of Charity; or, an Address to the Ladies concerning Sunday Schools. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Robinsons.

We are sorry that we did not receive this admirable little work sooner. Of the Sunday schools, we have often had occasion to give our opinion, which we think will appear of more importance, when we observe that it was the reluctant decision of

of the judgment against a former prepossession against them. Mrs. Trimmer, to whose benevolence and charity we have often paid the tribute of our applause, gives an account not only of the nature of the institution, but of the conduct of a well-conducted one, at Old Brentford. She explains also the schools of industry, and gives many important arguments in support of them. She enforces, at some length, the necessity of constant and punctual visitings, and particularly recommends this task to young ladies. In these days of dissipation, we fear her recommendation will be little attended to; but we will enforce it with all our authority; and, if one reason can be effectual, we will add it. Every man of reason and judgment; every man with whom a sensible woman must have the best chance of happiness, would more readily look for a wife in these scenes of charity than in the crowded assembly; and would value her more for one act of just and well directed benevolence, than for the activity of a Vestris, or all the elegance Fierville could bestow.

Evangelical Truth defended; or, A Reply to a Letter, containing Strictures on a Sermon preached at Lancaster, by the rev. Mr. Housman. By George Burder. 8vo. 6d. Evans.

In our LXIII^d volume, p. 298, we noticed a Sermon of Mr. Housman, distinguished by the singularities of Methodism, and a Letter addressed to him, by a very candid author, on account of those singularities. Though some thought that Letter too weak for a reply, others supposed, that it 'had a tendency to deceive the unwary, and confirm the ignorant, in their most dangerous mistakes.' On this account, Mr. Burder publishes his defence, and endeavours to show that the doctrines in question are those of the Bible, and were esteemed so by the reformers.—Mr. Burder was the author of a tract of a similar tendency, entitled, *The Good Old Way*; and from the observation on it and its author, in the Letter, he seems to have been induced to reply.

Observations on Mr. Andrew Fuller's Reply to Philanthropos. By Dan Taylor. 12mo. 1s. Buckland.

Of the rejoinder to a reply we cannot easily give an adequate idea, without engaging too far in a controversy which is not generally interesting or useful. Mr. Taylor's object is to show the universality of the Divine Love, in opposition to Mr. Fuller's more limited views of its extent.

A Letter to Beilby, Lord Bishop of London, on the Abolition of Slavery. 8vo. 6d. Longman.

Of Slavery? Yes; but not of African slavery: What then? The truth must come forth at last, and we must confess, that the slavery of our author is that of conformity, while his title is a popular one, and leads the reader from the slavery of the body to that of the mind. The device is ingenious; but the bishop's correspondent need not have stooped to it. He might have com-

commanded attention by his mildness, his candour, and his good sense. To the argument, as he has stated it, there is nothing to reply: but it will admit of a different construction, which, in the opinion of many, would counterballance this author's reasoning. If this be a slavery, its termination, we believe, is not very near.

A F R I C A N S L A V E T R A D E.

Examination of the rev. Mr. Harris's Scriptural Researches on the Licitness of the Slave Trade. By the rev. James Ramsay. 8vo. 6d. Phillips.

This Examination is very pointed, and, in general, very accurate. Our author shows the fallacy of Mr. Harris's data, and of some of his representations. He has followed him pretty closely through the whole work, and generally with success. There was nothing to us more surprising, than to find, from Mr. Ramsay, and Mr. Hughes, that Mr. Harris's Researches had appeared of importance to any enquirer on this subject.

An Answer to the rev. Mr. Harris's Scriptural Researches on the Licitness of the Slave-Trade. By the rev. W. Hughes. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

Mr. Harris's work might admit of a full satisfactory answer, though on grounds and by details which might perhaps be injurious. In our review of his work we alluded to them obscurely, and we have seen them, since that time, extended, perhaps too far. Mr. Hughes proceeds on other grounds; but his answer would have been more successful if he had adopted the systematic manner which he disclaims. He now examines a few of Mr. Harris's principal facts, and exposes some errors: we wish that he had not, in some degree, exposed the cause, by a hasty and a superficial answer.

Remarks upon the Situation of Negroes in Jamaica. By W. Beckford, jun. 8vo. 2s. Egerton.

Mr. Beckford opposes emancipation, and with reason: it is one of the visionaries of a weak mind, which, in the present circumstances, is impracticable. He gives a good account of the management of negroes, and expatiates on their comforts; but still tells us that they are the slaves of caprice, and that their good treatment may be as transitory as the present system. We cannot adopt the rigour of criticism, for these Remarks are dated from the Fleet.

Observations on a Guinea Voyage. By James Field Stanfield. Small 8vo. 4d. Phillips.

We are obliged to believe these facts, because Mr. Stanfield has sworn to them. But, if we do believe them, we must suppose the merchants fools, to be so inattentive to their own interests, in employing captains wantonly careless of them; and that a Guinea sailor is never so mad as to go a second voyage.

This

This may have been a faithful picture, on some particular occasion, but it is impossible to be an accurate representation in general; and we think the committee display very little judgment, in permitting these highly coloured narratives to be published. Nothing has so great a tendency to injure, nothing has injured their cause so much.

Memoirs of an English Missionary to the Coast of Guinea. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Shepperson and Reynolds.

It is the narrative of Mr. Thompson, published in 1758, with some abridgment, and shows only that the Negroes are indifferent to Christianity, and not eager to be converted.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Extracts from the Album at Streatham; or, Ministerial Amusements. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway.

The Album is a paper-book, the pocket-companion of foreigners of eminence, particularly Germans. In this book they request their friends to write their names, and some lines, either original, or quotations, in any language; in short, to leave some memorial of their former acquaintance. The history of the Album, and the various passages of curiosity and elegance that may be extracted from those which we have had occasion to see, might afford some interesting information. Gray's very elegant Latin Ode, written on the priory of the Chartreux, was inscribed in the Album of these gloomy recluses. It is enough, however, to have translated the title; and we must add an abstract of the History of the English Album.

In a recess of business, the ministry are supposed to have met at Streatham; and, in want of amusement, to have agreed to write some poems of different kinds in the Album. The extracts from these supposed poems, and the circumstances which attended these literary meetings, are the subjects of this characteristic and humorous performance, which, in pointed description, equals the Rolliad, and, in true humour, exceeds it. Lord Lansdown's Ode to *Sincerity* is an admirable performance. Some of the flowers from this parterre may bear transplanting with little danger. The following is an admirable parody, and is taken from the Ode of the Minister.

‘Now strike the lyre again
A louder——yet a louder strain
St. Stephen's opes its venerable doors!
I see the hostile phalanx move,
The firm-set strength to prove;
But soon the event shall prove their contest vain.
—First, my Beaufoy, his skill to try,
On dulness' chords his hands shall lay;
Pleas'd with the sound, he knows not why,
His strains complacently shall lead the way.

In

In order due, then next shall Martin rise,
 Whilst folly jingles all her bells;
 Thro' the long period still he tries,
 And on the monstrous coalition dwells,
 Till sense repugnant flies the sound,
 And sombrous vapours fill the dome around.
 Thy speech too, Grenville, still to nought is fix'd,
 Sad proof of thy disorder'd state,
 Of differing themes, the veering jargon mix'd,
 Calls general pity for thy hapless fate.
 Then next Dundas, his eyes on fire,
 Wak'd by a thousand secret stings,
 On India's woes shall touch the lyre,
 Till sympathy resound from all its strings.
 Whilst Mulgrave sad, as fix'd despair,
 In sullen strains his grief beguiles;
 The solemn, strange and mingled air
 At times is dull—at times he grimly smiles.'

The *Bulfe*, an Ode, is of inferior merit; and *Jekyl*, an eclogue, we have already examined as a separate publication. Though disappointment may tune the lyre, the sounds are often exquisitely harmonious. How great would be the misfortune, we speak as *literary reviewers* only, that genius so brilliant, wit so refined, and satire so nicely pointed, should be clouded and blunted by the sombrous and dull toils of business. While Pitt keeps his state, we may expect future *Rolliads*, and other 'Extracts'—may he then continue to keep it!

A Series of Letters. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Elliot.

Miss Marshall, about three years since, published proposals for printing a series of letters; but these letters were not written; and from idleness, a barrenness of invention, or other avocations, they have only appeared within a few weeks. The collection begins with (this Lady acknowledges that she wanted their assistance) some letters to a boy of 14, removed from the university of Edinburgh, under the immediate care of Miss Marshall, to an academy in England. Of the real or the fictitious letters we cannot speak highly. The former are uninteresting, and abound in provincial phrases, which render the lady's criticisms on her young correspondent's style, often, in appearance, misplaced. The latter are miscellaneous: the author's intentions seem to have been good, and they must cover the multitude of her errors—We shall select a passage, that our readers may judge of her manner.

'I firmly aver, my dear friend, that the truly virtuous must be so from principle not through ignorance; and however there may be some amongst those who are readers of novels who have strayed from the right path, I am clearly of opinion that they have inspired a thousand young people with principles of honour and moral rectitude for one they ever hurt. The effect of them

is indeed rendered less efficacious than they otherwise would be, from the ridicule with which they are treated by those who know nothing about them. And even they who pretend to admire them, will tell you, that the character of Sir Charles Grandison is unnatural, and impossible to come up to. This I deny; for however few, comparatively speaking, there may be, I trust, bad as the world is, there are many who come up to Sir Charles Grandison with regard to honour and sentiment. And believe me, my friend, it is only so far as you act up to such a character that you will enjoy true pleasure.'

Maxims and Observations Moral and Physical. 8vo. 3s. Bladon.

These remarks are selected with judgment, and are often interesting. We wish, however, that the authors names had been preserved.

Notitia Monastica; or an Account of all the Abbies, Priories, and Houses of Friars, formerly in England and Wales. By Dr. Tanner, Bishop of St. Asaph, published in 1741. Reprinted, with many Additions, by James Nasmyth, M. A. Folio. 2l. 2s. in Boards. Nichols.

The *Notitia Monastica* of bishop Tanner is a work deservedly much esteemed, and we are glad to see it reprinted with the present improvements. The most conspicuous of these relates to the order of the several articles in each county, which, in the former edition, were arranged chronologically, but in that now before us, alphabetically. The inconvenience attending the chronological method was, that the accounts of the religious houses in the same city or town, which ought to have been collected together, were widely scattered, according to the different dates of their foundations. Besides this improvement, the present editor has added an account of several houses not mentioned in the former editions; and he confirms his own information by references to books and manuscripts. Both as a new edition, therefore, and a supplement, Mr. Nasmyth's publication adds value to the original work of the bishop.

Memoirs of the celebrated Dwarf, Joseph Boruwlaski, a Polish Gentleman. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Sold by the Author.

Mr. Boruwlaski informs us that he was born in the environs of Chalicz, the capital of Pokucia, in Polish Russia, in November 1739. His parents were of the middle size, and had six children, three of whom grew to above the middle stature, and the other three reached only that of children in general at the age of four or five years. Joseph's stature, when thirty years old, and at which he has since remained, was three feet three inches. This celebrated little personage has lived all his time in good company, and visited most of the courts of Europe. He appears to give an ingenuous account of his own life, and, among other particulars, a copy of the amorous letters which passed between

between him and his favourite Isalina, whom he married in the end of the year 1779. The memoirs are printed in French and English, in opposite pages, and may prove interesting to many readers who have seen, or may see, if they please, this engaging little biographer, at N^o. 162, opposite the New Church, in the Strand.

Remarks on the enormous Expence of Education in the University of Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. Stalker.

Many of the irregularities, practised at Cambridge, are mentioned with proper indignation in this work; and a good plan proposed for their emendation. But it requires no prophetic spirit to say, that neither will obtain any considerable attention; and reformation is, we fear, too far distant.

Miscellanies, Moral and Instructive. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Phillips.

These extracts are selected with great propriety, and they form a very entertaining collection: we are sorry only, that the names of the authors are not subjoined, as they might induce the young reader to extend his acquaintance with some of the best works in the English Language.

A new Method of learning French. By M. du Mitand. 8vo. 6s. Sold by the Author.

We are weary of the great varieties of teaching French, and the number of grammars of that language. Were there even so many as the preface asserts, it would not change the tongue, for these are in reality the foot-steps; the language is actually learned by reading the best authors. M. du Mitand's explanation of the verbs is simple, is easy to be understood; but we must always object to learning so many phrases, which are of little use, but to keep the scholar from those authors which will improve his mind, his style, and his stock of words. These will never be completed without diligently searching for them in the dictionary.

The Indian Vocabulary. 12mo. 3s. 6d. in Boards. Stockdale.

For explaining many exotic words in the narratives of Indian transactions, a vocabulary or glossary cannot but prove extremely useful, and is indeed indispensable to those readers who wish to make themselves acquainted with the publications on that subject. The compiler of the present vocabulary has formed a large collection of Indian words for his purpose; but which there is room for rendering yet more complete in a subsequent edition. The chief merit of such a work consists in a precise interpretation; and with respect to this quality, the introduction before us seems not to be deficient. The particular mode of spelling, however, which the author has adopted in many words, though conformable to the pronunciation in India, may not prove agreeable to those who have been accustomed to the common orthography.